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# CRITICAL REVIEW.

**For the Month of September, 1774.**

## ARTICLE I.

*The Antiquities of Furness; or, an Account of the Royal Abbey of St. Mary's in the Vale of Nighthshade, near Dalton in Furness, Belonging to the Right Honorable Lord George Cavendish.* 410.  
153. sewed. Johnson.

**I**N treating of ancient buildings the end most frequently kept in view is the mere gratification of curiosity; but the author of the present work appears to be not more actuated by this principle than by motives of a moral and political nature. Addressing himself particularly to the inhabitants of Furness, he expresses his hope of meeting with their approbation and encouragement, by placing before them the laudable examples of their ancestors in every civil and religious virtue, and by rendering them acquainted with the ancient customs, rights, and privileges, on which their tenures depend. A plan so well devised serves not only to convey useful knowledge, but likewise to excite a generous emulation, and must secure to Mr. West the favour of the public, as well as the gratitude of his provincial readers.

The country of Furness is an insulated tract of land in Lancashire, anciently possessed by the Setuntii; where stands the royal abbey of St. Mary of Furness, in the Vale of Nightshade, near Dalton. After accurately describing the country of Furness, the author proceeds to deliver an account of the abbey, concerning which we are told that it was founded on the nones of July, A.D. 1127, by Stephen earl of Morton.

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and Bulloign, afterwards king of England. It was erected in a place called Bekangs-Gill, a name derived from Bekang, signifying the Solanum Lethale, or deadly nightshade, which plant grows plentifully in that neighbourhood. The monks of this abbey were originally a branch, or filiation, from the monastery of Savigny in Normandy, which at that time had been founded about fifteen years. Before Mr. West prosecutes his subject any further, he takes a general view of the origin and progress of monastic life, and entertains his readers with an account of the Cistercian and Savigny order of monks. He gives the following brief detail of the monastic institution.

Soon after the Christian religion had made some considerable progress in the East, the policy of the Roman empire exposed the professors of it to many and great inconveniences, and a succession of bloody persecutions: the two last, under Decius and Dioclesian, more especially obliged many to betake themselves to mountains, deserts, and solitary places, to secure themselves from the unrelenting fury of these bloody tyrants: there they found a safe retreat, with time and liberty to give themselves up to the exercise of piety and divine contemplation, in a course of most rigorous mortifications and preternatural austeries. This kind of life, which necessity gave rise to, was afterwards, in the time of the Christian emperors, embraced through choice; and Pacomius, about the middle of the fourth century, committed to writing rules for regular societies, and founded some monasteries in the environs of Thebes in Egypt: this example was soon after followed in all parts of the Christian world; and, exclusive of the disputed antiquity of Glastenbury Abbey, it is evident from Gildas (the most ancient British author now extant) that monasteries had been established in Britain long before St. Austin and his companions came thither: however, it doth not appear that there was any general rule for such communities, but that each abbey and monastery had their peculiar regulations. The Saxons, on their first coming into Britain, destroyed many of these religious communities; and at BANGOR ys Coed, i. e. BANGOR under the Wood, in Flintshire, upwards of eleven hundred monks were inhumanly butchered by the Saxons themselves, after they had in some measure embraced Christianity: and all their precious books and records were destroyed; a loss the more considerable, as it had been the seat of learning, and the repository of every thing valuable, for ages past.

\* The Saxons, on their conversion to Christianity, founded many monasteries ; and Austin the monk laid down rules for their conduct. However, several incursions of the Danes were fatal to the Saxon monks : those invaders robbed, plundered, and burnt, the monasteries ; and stripped, and frequently murdered, the defenceless monks : but after the re-establishment of the Saxon government, St. Dunstan, abbot of Glastenbury, was the great restorer of monastic discipline in England : he first settled the Benedictin rule in all its purity within his own abbey of Glastenbury, and afterwards propagated the same throughout all the religious houses on the south side the Trent.

' The strictness of the Benedictin rule, the excellency of the discipline it enjoined, the piety of the monks, and the regularity

of their lives, compared with the conduct of the secular canons, easily brought over the nation to approve the reform; and king Edgar himself seconded it with his royal authority. This reform was effected about the middle of the tenth century, and was confined to the south side of the Trent; for it was not till some time after the Conquest, that the Benedictin rule made any progress on the north side the Trent. From the death of Edgar and St. Dunstan, the reformation of religious houses was at a stand till after the Conquest, when archbishop Lanfranc obliged all the monks of the old way, who had not submitted to the abbot of Glastenbury's reform, to accept of the Benedictin rule: this was agreed on in a council held at London, A. D. 1075, whereby a greater uniformity of discipline was observed in all the monasteries through England, than had ever before taken place.<sup>1</sup>

The learned author next enquires at what period monks were first introduced into England, and delivers the reasons generally assigned for the rapid progress of the several religious orders in this kingdom. From the character of the Norman princes there is good ground for suspecting that the favour they shewed to these institutions proceeded rather from political than religious motives; but in confirmation of their being partly influenced by the latter, Mr. West presents us with the translation of a grant of king Henry I. to the priory of Gylburgh, in the east riding of Yorkshire. It is as follows,

" In the name of the Holy and undivided Trinity. By the magnificent gifts of kings and princes, the church is enlarged, and now spreads herself over the world. We also rejoice that in our kingdom the number is increased; by which religion is augmented, and the numbers of religious multiplied, by whose prayers the strength of our kingdom is established, and a passage to that of Heaven is mercifully opened to such as truly seek for it. Wherefore I Henry, by the disposition of God, king of the English, son of William the Great, for the good of my soul, the soul of my wife, and the souls of my predecessors, do by royal authority grant and confirm whatever Robert de Brus hath given to the church of Gylburgh, and the brethren there regularly serving God, as well the church itself, as the lands, possessions, and other rents, to the honour of God and holy church, &c."

After producing a great number of ancient charters, the author treats of the order, dress, and privileges of the monks of Furness; in the course of which detail we meet with many interesting remarks relative to the appropriation of tythes. In the subsequent chapter, we find a catalogue of the abbots of Furness, which is succeeded by an account of the scite and building of the abbey. For the gratification of our readers we shall select this part of the work.

<sup>1</sup> This abbey was well situated to answer all the views and purposes of its ascetic inhabitants, Furness being a kind of peninsula, or nose or ness of land, as its name imports, defended on the north and south by dangerous quick-sands, on the west by St.

George's channel, or the Irish sea, and having Furness Fells on the east, which in those days were covered with woods; and the roads leading to it, being then but little frequented, secured the country in some measure from the din of war, and the incursions of the free-booters who lived on the frontiers of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, and, as often as national quarrels gave occasion, gratified their passion for plunder, by pillaging, robbing, and often demolishing these repositories of envied wealth, and seats of ease and plenty. This was often the ill fate of such abbeys and religious houses as were founded in the open country, within the reach of a Scottish incursion, that is, on the north side of the Humber and Severn. From these calamities Furness was, by the advantage of situation, in a great measure freed. Near the extremity of this ness of land, towards the west, a deep narrow vale stretches itself from the north, and opens to the south: it is well watered with a rivulet of fine water collected from the adjacent springs, with many convenient places for mills and fish-ponds. About midway down this vale, the abbey stands. The site is gloomy and romantic, and there grows the Lethal Bekan, or deadly night-shade, from whence the vale had first the name of Bekangs-Gill. This vale, at its opening to the south, forms an agreeable aspect to the mid-day sun. A solitary and private place, so well formed and accommodated for religious retreat, drew the attention of Evans, with his associates, and fixed them there. The buildings took up the whole breadth of the vale; and the rock from whence the stones were taken, in some parts made place for and overtopped the edifice. Hence it is so secreted by the high grounds and eminences that surround it, as not to be discovered at any distance. There such terrasses, leading to different views of the stately ruins, might be formed, as would equal, if not surpass, any in England. As to the building itself, the remains of it breathe the plain simplicity of taste, which is met with in most houses belonging to the Cistercian monks, which were erected about the same time with Furness abbey. The chapter-house is the only building belonging to it, that is marked with any elegance of Gothic sculpture; but its roof hath of late been suffered (proh dolor!) to fall in. The east end of the church seems to have been an additional part, intended for a belfrey, to ease the main tower; but that is as plain as the rest: had the monks even intended it, the stone would not admit of such work as has been executed at Fountains and Rieval abbeys. The east end of the church contained five altars, besides the high altar, as the distinct chapels shew; and probably there was a private altar in the sacristy. As to magnitude, it was the second in England belonging to the Cistercian monks, and in opulence the next after Fountains abbey in Yorkshire. The church and cloisters were encompassed with a wall, which commenced at the east side of the great door, and formed the strait inclosure, and a space of ground, to the amount of sixty-five acres, was surrounded with a strong stone wall, which inclosed their mills, kilns, ovens and stews for receiving their fish, the ruins of which are still visible. This was the great inclosure, now called the Deer park.

\* It has been already observed, that there were amongst the monks different classes, to each of which different departments were assigned. The monks who attended the church service, were confined to strict silence, and strait inclosure; the times for con-

versation were, after dinner, in the Locatorium, or conversation-room, and on some particular days, when they had liberty to walk abroad in company for exercise and relaxation, they being but seldom permitted to receive or return visits. The other class of monks were employed in cultivating their lands, and performing the servile works of the monastery.

‘The abbey of Furness was a mother monastery, and had under her nine houses, four of which were filiations from Furness. 1. The monastery of Caldre, in Cumberland; 2. Swinshead, or Swynsheved abbey, in Lincolnshire; 3. The abbey of Russin, in Man; 4. Fermoï, in Ireland; 5. Ynes; 6. Holy Cross; 7. Wythnea; 8. Corkonrouth; 9. Yneselughen; with Arkelo, and Bello-Becio.

‘At the dissolution, the revenues of Furness abbey, according to Dugdale, were valued at 80*l.* 16*s.* according to Speed, 966*l.* 7*s.* In the thirty-first and thirty-second years of the reign of king Edward I. the rents were 1599*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.* as asserted in a manuscript in the Manchester library.’

The author then presents us with an agreement between the abbot of Furness and his tenants, in the reign of Henry VIII; a survey of the revenues of the abbey, immediately before the dissolution; the sum of the domestic provisions paid by the tenants to the abbey, with an estimate of the comparative value to the present time. It appears from this account that the sum total of the rents belonging to the abbey of Furness, amounted to 94*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* of the money of those times.

The articles which Mr. West next produces are, a Translation of the Surrender of the Abbey to King Henry VIII. the Grant of the Rectory of Dalton to Roger Pyle, the last Abbot of Furness; General Reflections on the Dissolution of Monasteries; with the State of Furness after the Dissolution. After a variety of articles of a similar nature, serving to elucidate the history of his subject, the author favours us with an abstract of the customs of several manors in Furness, established since the dissolution. The account of these, in the following passage, will shew how much they breathe the spirit of the feudal system.

‘Each manor, within the lordship of Furness, has its own code of customs and bye-laws, by which the tenants are governed, and upon which the tenures depend; but, as these customs are all formed by one general scale, of feudal subordination, it will be proper, first, to show the particulars wherein they differ, and then give some of them at large.

‘In the manor of Kirkby Ireleth, the widow is intitled, during her widowhood, to the moiety of the estate whereof her husband died seised, but forfeits her right thereto upon marriage, or breach of chastity.

‘Every tenant, upon being admitted to a tenement, pays to the lord of the manor twenty years quit-rent for a fine.

\* Every intire tenement was formerly obliged to keep one horse and harness for the king's service, on the borders, or elsewhere; (these were called Summer Naggs, of which thirty were kept in Kirkby;) and was also to furnish a boon plough, and a boon harrow; that is, a day's plowing and harrowing; and no one is to let his land, for any term exceeding seven years, without licence.

\* Tenements in this manor are, by treason or felony, forfeited to the lord.

\* A tenant convicted of wilful perjury forfeits to the lord twenty years rent, and for petty larceny, ten years rent.

\* In the manor of Pennington, the tenant, on his admission, pays a fine of sixteen years quit-rent.

\* On the death of the lord, and upon every change of lord by descent, the tenant pays a further fine of six years quit-rent; and a running fine, town term, or gressom, is payable every seventh year.

\* The heir, where there is a widow, pays a heriot.

\* Every tenant is obliged to carry a horse-load once a year to Muncaster, and half a horse-load to Lancaster.

\* Every tenant must plant two trees of the same kind for every one that he falls. The customs of this manor were established by a decree in Chancery, March 20, 1654, in pursuance of an agreement entered into, between Joseph Pennington, of Muncaster, esq. lord of the manor, and the tenants.

\* In the manor of Muchland, the tenant, on being admitted to his tenement, pays to the lord of the manor two years rent, over and above the usual annual rent.

\* Every tenant paying 40s. rent was formerly obliged to find a horse and harness, for the king's service, on the borders, or elsewhere.

\* Every tenant, who pays 20s. a year's rent, was to furnish a man harnessed for the king's service.

\* Every old tenant paid a gressom of one year's rent on the death of the lord, and every new tenant pays two years rent to the next heir. The widow, in this manor, has one third of the tenement during her chaste widowhood.

\* If a tenement is not presented within a year and a day after the death of the tenant, or if it be sold, set, or let, without paying the fine, or gressom, for a year and day; then the lord, if there be not good distress upon the grounds, may seise such tenement into his hands as a forfeiture, &c.

\* The customs of this manor were confirmed by queen Elizabeth, on the 3d of March, in the 9th year of her reign.

\* In the manor of Lowick, the customs are much the same as in Kirkby Ireleth, except in the article of forfeitures. In this manor, the running gressom, or town term, is a year's rent, every seventh year, paid to the lord. There are four house-lookers annually appointed for reviewing, and assigning timber for necessary repairs.

\* In the manor of Nevel-Hall, the admittance fine is two years rent, over and above the accustomed yearly rent. The heriot, on the change of lord, is half a year's rent. The running gressom, or town term, is half a year's rent every seventh year. Every tenant paying 20s. rent was formerly obliged to keep a horse harnessed in readiness for the king's service. The widow in this manor, if the first wife, to have half the tenement; but if she be a latter wife, then only one third of the tenement.

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‘ A tenant within this manor may, whenever he pleases, give his tenement to any of his sons; and, in default of sons, to any of his daughters, as he thinks fit. A tenant may let, or mortgage, any tenement, or part of it, for a year, without licence; and may sell his whole tenant right, or any part of it, with licence from the lord.

‘ The customs of this manor were confirmed by king James I in the first year of his reign, 1603.

‘ N. B. The rents mentioned above are the old and immutable rents.’

Mr. West proceeds to relate some particulars relating to the priory of Conishead, and the rectory of Ulverstone, after which he presents us with a synopsis of the Furness families, introduced with the following just reflections.

‘ It has been a prevailing passion in every age, and amongst all nations, whether civilised or barbarous, to cultivate a high opinion of themselves, on account of their being descended from renowned ancestors; and this partiality, in the early periods of society, has been of singular service in animating the undertaking, and enforcing the execution, of the most daring enterprises for the good of the state. The same spirit diffuses itself into particular families, who, catching the national enthusiasm of illustrious descent, have distinguished themselves by eminent services in the field and in the cabinet; and though it should be granted, that the ideal ancestor, decorated with fictitious virtues, is the idol of credulity and romance, yet the real descendants are no less inspired with the high notion of their national, or family importance, and a contempt of every thing unworthy of the same. However puerile this national attachment, or family prejudice, may appear to the civilised sceptic of the day, refined into the disbelief of every truth, and steeled against the partial tender feelings of the heart; yet to derive an importance from descent, is itself laudable, and useful to society; but where facts are ascertained from authentic records, sufficient to mark the illustrious origin of a nation, tribe, or family, from ancestors of high antiquity, such descent is to be considered as a perpetuity of succession in the present representatives, with obligation of conveying the same to their posterity: and this seems to be the genuine meaning, and natural language, of that partiality to national and family ancestors, which characterises all men, civil or barbarous, and is found in one of the great principles of social compact, “amor patræ,” that partiality felt by every one for the nation he belongs to.

‘ And as the transactions of the distant progenitor are in general expressive of the warmest affection, and glow of tender passions; the memory of them becomes more interesting, and the instructions more pleasing and persuasive.’

The Synopsis exhibits a short historical account of sixteen families, which have possessed estates in the country of Furness through a period of many ages. This subject is succeeded by a view of the state of population in Furness, extracted from the parish registers: and the volume concludes with a large Appendix, containing the copies of charters, and other papers relative to the history of Furness. Among these we meet

with an abstract of a bill prepared, after the suppression of the lesser monasteries, to be passed into an act of parliament for the support of hospitality, relief of the poor, &c. This bill is copied from the original in the British Museum, and affords a proof of the necessity to which the poor were reduced by the suppression of the religious houses. Whether its not being passed into a law ought to be imputed to the traditional hospitality of our ancestors, which rendered such an establishment unnecessary, we shall leave undetermined. The very proposal of the bill, however, is repugnant to that idea. The bill is as follows,

• — In they most humble wyse schewed unto yor. most royall majte. the lords spiritual and temporall, and all other yor. most lovyng subject, the commons yn thys yor. most highe court of parliament assemblyd, That when of late, yn yor. parliament holden at Westm. the forth daye of February, yn the xxvijth of yor. most gracious reign, among other, it was ther ordenyd, establishd, and enacted, that yor. royall majeste shold have and enjoy, to you, yor. heirs and successors for ever, all and singuler such monasteryes, pr'oryes, and other religios houses of monks, chanons, and nons, of what kynds or condicion, of habit, rules, or order, soever they wer, notwithstanding, which had not above the cler yerly value of iijc. lib. &c. by meanes whereof many and divers religeous houses withyn your realme wer suppressed accordingly; some other again, as yet, remain unsupressyd: and ALBEYT, most drad soverayn lord, at the makyng of the sayd act, it was thought that we might full well therby have advanced the revenues of yor. noble crown, without prejudice or hurt of ony yor. poor subjects, or of the common wealth of this yor. realme; yet nevertheless, the experience, which we have had by those houses that alrdy be supressed, scheweth playnly unto us, that a great hurt and decay is thereby comen, and herafter shall come to thys yo'r realme, and gret empoverishing of many yo'r poor obedient subjects for lak of hospitalite, and good housholdynge, that was wont in them to be kept, to the gret releffe the poor people of all the countries adjoynyng to the said monasteryes, besid the maintenance of many such hotbondmen and laborurs that daylye wer kept on the sayd religeous houses.

• It may therefor pleas your highnes of your accustomable goodness, at the contemplacion of the humble petition of us yo'r trew and faithfull subjects, and for the entire love and affection that yo'r majestie hathe alwayes born, and berreth to the common wealthe of this yo'r realme; that it may be enacted by auctorite of this present parliament, that all and every person or persons, which have taken ony of the said monasteryes (that is to say, the mansion, place, or scyt of the monasterye, with the demyneis thereto belonging) yn ferm of yo'r highness, or of ony yo'r officers, having auctoritie to make lease of the same, or that hereafter shall take, &c. under the seal of yo'r court of augmentacion, shall, after the fest of St. Michell th'archangell, next ensueyng, dwell and keep house upon the said scite, &c. or ellys to make a lease of the same to some other substanciall farmor, which shall dwell, &c. there to keep hospitality, accordyng to their habilnes and degres, wherby the land may be manured and tilled for the sufficient fynding of the said hof-

hospitalite; laborars also and servants may be sett to work, and the poor people of the country adjoynynge greatly refreshed and relieved therby.

' Be yt also enacted, &c. that all graunts, seals, and exchaunges, of ony of the said monasteryes, or ony parcell therunto belonging, made, or that hereafter shall be made, by yo'r highnes, &c. to ony of yo'r loving subjects, shall stand good and effectual to them made; nevertheles that they, ther heirs, &c. shall dwell and keep hospitality upon the mansion, &c. so to them graunted, or ells to make leafys of the same, with all the demaynes thereunto belonging, to other honest farmors, &c. and that as well the grauntee as the lessees, befor rehersed, observe this ordination, upon payn of forfaytur of xl. for every monith that they so offend, the on half therof to be to the use of our sovraign lord the king, the other half to him that will sue therfor by byll, action, &c. Provided always, that this act take place in all monasteryes that be alredy surpreſſed, or which be on this ſide the ryver of Trent, al-though the ſuppreſſion of the ſame be yet deffered.'

The work is illustrated with a map of the Liberty of Furness; a Plan of the Abbey of St. Mary; a perspective View of its Ruins elegantly engraved; and an Engraving of its common Seal. The contents of the volume in general, evince Mr. West to have been extremely affiduous in his researches, and while they cast a clear light on a part of the English antiquities, they must in a particular manner gratify the curioſity of the inhabitants of Furness.

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II. *A Voyage towards the North Pole undertaken by his Majesty's Command 1773. By Constantine John Phipps. 4to. 12s. 6d. boards. Nourse.*

THE discovery of a paſſage to the East Indies by the north pole has long been conſidered as an object of importance to the commerce of this country, as it would greatly shorten the voyage to those parts, and afford us no ſmall advantage over Spain and Portugal in our navigation to the Spice Islands. Upon this idea the prosecution of ſuch a discovery was first ſuggested, and warmly recommended to king Henry VIII. by Robert Thorne, a merchant of Bristol, in the year 1527. It was the opinion of this zealous projector, that the climate of the polar region could not be intemperately cold (he means, no doubt, in ſummer) on account of the ſun's continuing annually in the horizon for a length of time. But this opinion, however apparently well founded, experience has confirmed to be erroneous: and we question whether the national advantage generally ſuppoſed to result from ſuch a discovery, would not prove equally ideal. For, admitting that a north-eaſt paſſage to Asia were really practicable, it is more than pro-

probable that Russia, on account of her vicinity, would draw the greatest emolument from the discovery ; and that the British commerce, instead of being increased, would actually be injured by the event. Whatever idea, however, has formerly been entertained of the practicability of the passage in question, the journal now before us seems sufficient fully to extinguish the expectation of its ever being effected. The season in which this voyage was performed is acknowledged to have been the most favourable for the execution of the design ; notwithstanding which circumstance, we find it was with the utmost difficulty that the voyagers could penetrate so far as within nearly seven degrees of the pole. Convinced, at length, that the greatest efforts of human industry never can surmount the eternal barriers with which nature has encircled the polar region, the philosophical world must renounce the pleasing hope of carrying their researches beyond the frozen limits of navigation, and content themselves with the observations that have been made in the prosecution of the arduous design, which has at least contributed to the advancement of nautical knowledge.

The honourable writer of the journal informs us in his introduction, that this voyage was undertaken in consequence of an application from the Royal Society to the earl of Sandwich, laid by his lordship before his majesty, for endeavouring to ascertain how far navigation was practicable towards the north pole. The ships with which it was performed were the *Racehorse* and *Carcass* bombs, which were fitted for the purpose in the completest manner. With every necessary provision for the voyage, and with the best digested plan for rendering it subservient to useful observation, the ships sailed from the Nore on June 2d, 1773, under the command of captain Phipps, whose accurate journal does equal honour to his zeal for the service, and to his naval abilities.

We shall present our readers with the relation of the difficulties encountered on this voyage, from the ice with which the ships were surrounded.

‘ August 1st. The ice pressed in fast ; there was not now the smallest opening ; the two ships were within less than two lengths of each other, separated by ice, and neither having room to turn. The ice, which had been all flat the day before, and almost level with the water’s edge, was now in many places forced higher than the main yard, by the pieces squeezing together. Our latitude this day at noon, by the double altitude, was  $80^{\circ} 37'$ .

‘ 2. Thick foggy wet weather, blowing fresh to the Westward ; the ice immediately about the ships rather looser than the day before, but yet hourly setting in so fast upon us, that there seemed to be no probability of getting the ships out again, without a strong east, or north east wind. There was not the smallest appearance of

of open water, except a little towards the west point of the north east land. The seven islands and north east land, with the frozen sea, formed almost a basin, leaving but about four points, opening for the ice to drift out, in case of a change of wind.

\* 3. The weather very fine, clear, and calm; we perceived that the ships had been driven far to the eastward; the ice was much closer than before, and the passage by which we had come in from the westward closed up, no open water being in sight, either in that or any other quarter. The pilots having expressed a wish to get if possible farther out, the ships companies were set to work at five in the morning, to cut a passage through the ice, and warp through the small openings to the westward. We found the ice very deep, having sawed sometimes through pieces twelve feet thick. This labour was continued the whole day, but without any success; our utmost efforts not having moved the ships above three hundred yards to the westward through the ice, at the same time that they had been driven (together with the ice itself, to which they were fast) far to the N E and eastward, by the current; which had also forced the loose ice from the westward, between the islands, where it became packed, and as firm as the main body.

\* 4. Quite calm till evening, when we were flattered with a light air to the eastward, which did not last long, and had no favourable effect. The wind was now at N W, with a very thick fog, the ship driving to the eastward. The pilots seemed to apprehend that the ice extended very far to the southward and westward.

\* 5. The probability of getting the ships out appearing every hour less, and the season being already far advanced, some speedy resolution became necessary as to the steps to be taken for the preservation of the people. As the situation of the ships prevented us from seeing the state of the ice to the westward, by which our future proceedings must in a great measure be determined, I sent Mr. Walden, one of the midshipmen, with two pilots, to an island about twelve miles off, which I have distinguished in the charts by the name of Walden's Island, to see where the open water lay.

\* 6. Mr. Walden and the pilots, who were sent the day before to examine the state of the ice from the island, returned this morning with an account, that the ice, though close all about us, was open to the westward, round the point by which we came in. They also told me, that when upon the island they had the wind very fresh to the eastward, though where the ships lay it had been almost calm all day. This circumstance considerably lessened the hopes we had hitherto entertained of the immediate effect of an easterly wind in clearing the bay. We had but one alternative; either patiently to wait the event of the weather upon the ships, in hopes of getting them out, or to betake ourselves to the boats. The ships had driven into shoal water, having but fourteen fathom. Should they, or the ice to which they were fast, take the ground, they must be inevitably lost, and probably overset. The hopes of getting the ships out was not haitily to be relinquished, nor obstinately adhered to, till all other means of retreat were cut off. Having no harbour to lodge them in, it would be impossible to winter them here, with any probability of their being again serviceable; our provisions would be very short for such an undertaking, were it otherwise feasible; and supposing, what appeared impossible, that we could get to the nearest rocks, and make some

some conveniences for wintering, being now in an un frequented part, where ships never even attempt to come, we should have the same difficulties to encounter the next year, without the same resources; the remains of the ship's company, in all probability, not in health; no provisions; and the sea not so open, this year having certainly been uncommonly clear. Indeed it could not have been expected that more than a very small part should survive the hardships of such a winter with every advantage; much less in our present situation. On the other hand, the undertaking to move so large a body for so considerable a distance by boats, was not without very serious difficulties. Should we remain much longer here, the bad weather must be expected to set in. The stay of the Dutchmen to the northward is very doubtful: if the northern harbours keep clear, they stay till the beginning of September; but when the loose ice sets in, they quit them immediately. I thought it proper to send for the officers of both ships, and informed them of my intention of preparing the boats for going away. I immediately hoisted out the boats, and took every precaution in my power to make them secure and comfortable: the fitting would necessarily take up some days. The water shoaling, and the ships driving fast towards the rocks to the N.E., I ordered canvas bread-bags to be made, in case it should be necessary very suddenly to betake ourselves to the boats: I also sent a man with a lead and line to the northward, and another from the Carcass to the eastward, to sound wherever they found cracks in the ice, that we might have notice before either the ships, or the ice to which they were fast, took the ground; as in that case, they must instantly have been crushed or overset. The weather bad; most part of the day foggy, and rather cold.

7th. In the morning I set out with the launch over the ice; she hauled much easier than I could have expected; we got her about two miles. I then returned with the people for their dinner. Finding the ice rather more open near the ships, I was encouraged to attempt moving them. The wind being easterly, though but little of it, we set the sails, and got the ships about a mile to the westward. They moved indeed, but very slowly, and were not now by a great deal so far to the westward as where they were beset. However, I kept all the sail upon them, to force through whenever the ice slackened the least. The people behaved very well in hauling the boat; they seemed reconciled to the idea of quitting the ships, and to have the fullest confidence in their officers. The boats could not with the greatest diligence be got to the water side before the fourteenth; if the situation of the ships did not alter by that time, I should not be justified in staying longer by them. In the mean time I resolved to carry on both attempts together, moving the boats constantly, but without omitting any opportunity of getting the ships through.

8th. At half past four, sent two pilots with three men to see the state of the ice to the westward, that I might judge of the probability of getting the ships out. At nine they returned, and reported the ice to be very heavy and close, consisting chiefly of large fields. Between nine and ten this morning, I set out with the people, and got the launch above three miles. The weather being foggy, and the people having worked hard, I thought it best to return on board between six and seven. The ships had in the mean time moved something through the ice, and the ice itself had drifted still more to the westward. At night there was little wind,

wind, and a thick fog, so that I could not judge precisely of the advantage we had gained; but I still feared that, however flattering, it was not such as to justify my giving up the idea of moving the boats, the season advancing so fast, the preservation of the ships being so uncertain, and the situation of the people so critical.

‘ 9th. A thick fog in the morning: we moved the ship a little through some very small openings. In the afternoon, upon its clearing up, we were agreeably surprized to find the ships had driven much more than we could have expected to the westward. We worked hard all day, and got them something more to the westward through the ice; but nothing in comparison to what the ice itself had drifted. We got past the launches; I sent a number of men for them, and got them on board. Between three and four in the morning the wind was westerly, and it snowed fast. The people having been much fatigued, we were obliged to desist from working for a few hours. The progress which the ships had made through the ice was, however, a very favourable event: the drift of the ice was an advantage that might be as suddenly lost, as it had been unexpectedly gained, by a change in the current: we had experienced the ineffectualy of an easterly wind when far in the bay, and under the high land; but having now got through so much of the ice, we began again to conceive hopes that a brisk gale from that quarter would soon effectually clear us.

‘ 10th. The wind springing up to the N N E. in the morning, we set all the sail we could upon the ship, and forced her through a great deal of very heavy ice: she struck often very hard, and with one stroke broke the shank of the best bower anchor. About noon we had got her through all the ice, and out to sea. I stood to the N W to make the ice, and found the main body just where we left it. At three in the morning, with a good breeze easterly, we were standing to the westward, between the land and the ice, both in sight; the weather hazey.

To refresh the men after these fatigues, the vessels came to an anchor in the harbour of Smeerenberg, where the navigators made several observations that are worthy of being communicated to the public.

‘ During our stay, says the journalist, I again set up the pendulum, but was not so fortunate as before, never having been able to get an observation of a revolution of the sun, or even equal altitudes for the time. We had an opportunity of determining the refraction at midnight, which answered within a few seconds to the calculation in Dr. Bradley’s table, allowing for the barometer and thermometer. Being within sight of Cloven Cliff, I took a survey of this part of Fair Haven, to connect it with the plan of the other part. Dr. Irving climbed up a mountain, to take its height with the barometer, which I determined at the same time geometrically with great care. By repeated observations here we found the latitude to be  $79^{\circ} 44'$ , which by the survey corresponded exactly with the latitude of Cloven Cliff, determined before; the longitude  $9^{\circ} 50' 45''$  E; dip  $82^{\circ} 8' \frac{1}{4}$ ; variation  $18^{\circ} 57' W$ ; which agrees also with the observation made on shore in July. The tide flowed here half past one, the same as in Vogel Sang harbour.

‘ Opposite to the place where the instruments stood, was one of the most remarkable Icebergs in this country. Icebergs are large bodies

bodies of ice filling the vallies between the high mountains ; the face towards the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light green colour. That represented in the engraving, from a sketch taken by Mr. D'Auvergne upon the spot was about three hundred feet high, with a cascade of water issuing out of it. The black mountains, white snow, and beautiful colour of the ice, make a very romantick and uncommon picture. Large pieces frequently break off from the Icebergs, and fall with great noise into the water : we observed one piece which had floated out into the bay, and grounded in twenty-four fathom ; it was fifty feet high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour as the Iceberg.

\* A particular description of all the plants and animals will have a place in the Appendix. I shall here mention such general observations as my short stay enabled me to make. The stone we found was chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolved easily in the marine acid. We perceived no marks of minerals of any kind, nor the least appearance of present, or remains of former volcanoes. Neither did we meet with insects, or any species of reptiles ; not even the common earthworm. We saw no springs or rivers, the water, which we found in great plenty, being all produced by the melting of the snow from the mountains. During the whole time we were in these latitudes, there was no thunder or lightning. I must also add, that I never found what is mentioned by Marten (who is generally accurate in his observations, and faithful in his accounts) of the sun at midnight resembling in appearance the moon ; I saw no difference in clear weather between the sun at midnight and any other time, but what arose from a different degree of altitude ; the brightness of the light appearing there, as well as elsewhere, to depend upon the obliquity of his rays. The sky was in general loaded with hard white clouds ; so that I do not remember to have ever seen the sun and the horizon both free from them even in the clearest weather. We could always perceive when we were approaching the ice, long before we saw it by a bright appearance near the horizon, which the pilots called the 'Blink of the Ice.' Hudson remarked, that the sea where he met with ice was blue ; but the green sea was free from it. I was particularly attentive to observe this difference, but could never discern it.

\* The driftwood in these seas has given rise to various opinions and conjectures, both as to its nature and the place of its growth. All that we saw, (except the pipe-staves taking notice of by Dr. Irving on the Low Island) was fir, and not worm-eaten. The place of its growth I had no opportunity of ascertaining.

\* The nature of the ice was a principal object of attention in this climate. We found also a great swell near the edge of it ; but whenever we got within the loose ice, the water was constantly smooth. The loose fields and flaws, as well as the interior part of the fixed ice, were flat, and low ; with the wind blowing on the ice, the loose parts were always, to use the phrase of the Greenlandmen, *packed* ; the ice at the edges appearing rough, and piled up ; this roughness and height I imagine to proceed from the smaller pieces being thrown up by the force of the sea on the solid part. During the time that we were fast amongst the Seven Islands, we had frequent opportunities of observing the irresistible force of the large bodies of floating ice. We have often seen a piece of several acres square lifted up between two much larger

larger pieces, and as it were becoming one with them; and afterwards this piece so formed acting in the same manner upon a second and third; which would probably have continued to be the effect, till the whole bay had been so filled with ice that the different pieces could have had no motion, had not the stream taken an unexpected turn, and set the ice out of the bay.

Among other observations captain Phipps informs us, that in a hard gale of wind on the 12th of September, Dr. Irving tried the temperature of the sea in the state of agitation, and found it considerably warmer than that of the atmosphere; the heat of the former being  $61^{\circ}$ , and of the latter  $50^{\circ}$ ; which remark the honourable writer observes, agrees with a passage in Plutarch's Natural Questions, not hitherto, he believes, taken notice of, or confirmed by experiment. The observation alluded to is, 'that the sea becomes warmer by being agitated in waves.'

Captain Phipps has conducted this publication with much judgment, by preserving the journal of the voyage uninterrupted, and placing in an Appendix, such observations as were made in astronomy, navigation, and natural history in distinct articles; the disregard to which method we remarked was an obvious defect in the compilation of Hawkesworth's Voyages.

The first article in the Appendix is a comparative Table of the Latitudes and Longitudes of some remarkable Places; after which we meet with useful Observations on different Methods of measuring a Ship's Way; Observations on the Use of the Megameter in Marine Surveying, and Observations on the Variation. We are next presented with an Account of the Observations made with the Marine Dipping-Needle, constructed for the Board of Longitude by Mr. Nairne; an Account of the Instruments made Use for keeping the Meteorological Journal; and Miscellaneous Observations. Among the latter we are told of an experiment relative to the specific gravity of Ice, made by Dr. Irving. 'A piece of the most dense ice he could find, being immersed in snow water, thermometer thirty-four degrees—fourteen fifteenth parts sunk under the surface of the water. In brandy, just proof, it barely floated; in rectified spirits of wine it fell to the bottom at once, and dissolved immediately.'

In the sequel experiments are related, made by the same ingenious gentleman, for determining the temperature of the water at different depths of the sea; with the quantity of salt it contains. These experiments were performed with a bottle most judiciously fitted for the purpose, and it appears that the result of them differs materially from those made with lord Charles Cavendish's thermometer; but for a more particular

account we must refer to the work itself. The two subsequent articles are Observations for determining the Height of a Mountain in lat.  $79^{\circ} 44'$ ; by the barometer, and geometrical measurement; and Observations for Determining the Acceleration of the Pendulum.

Natural History constitutes another article in the Appendix, where we are presented with an accurate catalogue of the productions observed by the voyagers during their short stay at Spitsbergen. This description is succeeded by an Account of Dr. Irving's Method of obtaining fresh water from the Sea by Distillation; drawn up with great precision by that very ingenious gentleman himself, and never before published.

This important article begins with a succinct detail of the principal experiments formerly made on the subject, where the author remarks the disadvantages attending the several processes, and clearly points out the general causes of their failure. He reduces the defects of the various methods to the following heads.

" 1. The small quantity of water produced by the ordinary methods of distillation with a still-head, and worm, could never be adequate to the purposes of shipping, though the apparatus should be kept in constant use; and at the same time, this mode of distillation required a quantity of fuel, which would occupy greater space than might be sufficient for the stowage of water.

" 2. A still-burnt taste, which always accompanies this method of distillation, and renders the water extremely unpalatable, exciting heat and thirst, if drank when recently distilled.

" 3. A total ignorance with respect to the proper time of stopping the distillation, whereby salt was permitted to form on the bottom of the boiler; which burning, and corroding the copper, decomposed the selenitic and magnesia salts, causing their acids to ascend with the vapour, and act on the still-head and worm-pipe, impregnating the water with metallic salts of the most pernicious quality.

" 4. The space occupied by the still, still-head, and worm-tub, renders the use of them in most cases totally impracticable on board ships. Add to this, their wearing out so fast on account of the causes abovementioned, the great expence of the apparatus, with the hazard of the still-head being blown off, and the inconveniences thence arising.

" 5. The use of ingredients, which though omitted in some experiments in small, were nevertheless erroneously considered as essential to the making sea-water sweet and palatable by distillation.

" 6. The inconvenience of a cumbersome apparatus, calculated only to be eventually useful in unexpected distress for water, but constantly occupying a great deal of room in a ship, too necessary for the ordinary purposes to be spared for that object."

The author next enters upon the principles of distillation in general, and the chemical analysis of sea-water; after treating of which he proceeds to state the peculiar advantages of the method he has introduced of rendering sea-water fresh.

These are so numerous and confessedly of so great importance to the navy, that they place in a strong light the justness of Dr. Irving's claim to the munificence with which his invention was rewarded by parliament. We shall lay before our readers the several advantages of this method of distillation, as they are specified in the author's own words.

" 1. The abolishing all stills, still heads, worm pipes, and their tubs, which occupy so much space as to render them totally incompatible with the necessary business of the ship; and using in the room of these, the ship's kettle or boiler, to the top whereof may occasionally be applied a simple tube, which can be easily made on board a vessel at sea, of iron plate, stove funnel, or tin sheet; so that no situation can prevent a ship from being completely supplied with the means of distilling sea-water.

" 2. In consequence of the principles of distillation being fully ascertained, the contrivance of the simplest means of obtaining the greatest quantity of distilled water, by making the tube sufficiently large, to receive the whole column of vapour; and placing it nearly in a horizontal direction to prevent any compression of the fluid, which takes place so much with the common worm.

" 3. The adopting the simplest and most efficacious means of condensing vapour; for nothing more is required in the distillation but keeping the surface of the tube always wet; which is done by having some sea-water at hand, and a person to dip a mop or swab into this water, and pass it along the upper surface of the tube. By this operation the vapour contained in the tube will be entirely condensed with the greatest rapidity imaginable; for by the application of the wet mop thin sheets of water are uniformly spread; and mechanically pressed upon the surface of the hot tube; which being converted into vapour, make way for a succession of fresh sheets; and thus both by the evaporation and close contact of the cold water constantly repeated, the heat is carried off more effectually than by any other method yet known.

" 4. The carrying on the distillation without any addition, & correct chemical analysis of sea water having evinced the futility of mixing ingredients with it, either to prevent an acid from rising with the vapour, or to destroy any bituminous oil supposed to exist in sea water, and to contaminate the distilled water, giving it that fiery unpalatable taste inseparable from the former processes.

" 5. The ascertaining the proper quantity of sea water that ought to be distilled, whereby the fresh water is prevented from contracting a noxious impregnation of metallic salts, and the vessel from being corroded and otherwise damaged by the salts caking on the bottom of it.

" 6. The producing a quantity of sweet and wholesome water, perfectly agreeable to the taste, and sufficient for all the purposes of shipping.

" 7. The taking advantage of the dressing the ship's provisions, so as to distil a very considerable quantity of water from the vapour which would otherwise be lost, without any addition of fuel.

" To sum up the merits of this method in a few words.

" The use of a simple tube, of the most easy construction, applicable to any ship's kettle. The rejecting all ingredients. Ascertaining

certaining the proportion of water to be distilled, with every advantage of quality, saving of fuel, and preservation of boilers. The obtaining fresh water, wholesome, palatable, and in sufficient quantities. Taking advantage of the vapour which ascends in the kettle while the ships provisions are boiling."

In captain Phipp's Journal we meet with the following testimony in favour of the utility of this method of distillation, in the course of the voyage.

" We began this day to make use of doctor Irving's apparatus for distilling fresh water from the sea : repeated trials gave us the most satisfactory proof of its utility : the water produced from it was perfectly free from salt, and wholesome, being used for boiling the ship's provisions ; which convenience would alone be a desirable object in all voyages, independent of the benefit of so useful a resource in case of distress for water. The quantity produced every day varied from accidental circumstances, but was generally from thirty four to forty gallons, without any great addition of fuel. Twice indeed the quantity produced was only twenty-three gallons on each distillation ; this amounts to more than a quart for each man, which, though not a plentiful allowance, is much more than what is necessary for subsistence. In cases of real necessity I have no reason to doubt that a much greater quantity might be produced without an inconvenient expence of fuel."

The last article in the Appendix contains an Account of the Astronomical Observations and Time-keepers, by Mr. Lyons.

The honourable gentleman who was entrusted with the direction of this voyage, appears evidently to have conducted the undertaking with intrepidity and the abilities of a skilful and judicious commander ; nor is he less entitled to applause in the character of an accurate journalist. The various observations that were made, he has arranged in the clearest manner, and neglected no circumstance of enquiry which he had any opportunity of prosecuting : above all, his nautical remarks deserve to be considered as a valuable addition to the improvements in navigation. The work is illustrated with several plates, and contains, if not much entertainment, at least a great variety of scientific information.

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*III. A Political Survey of Britain : being a Series of Reflections on the Situation, Lands, Inhabitants, Revenues, Colonies, and Commerce of this Island. Intended to shew that we have not as yet approached near the Summit of Improvement, but that it will afford Employment to many Generations before they push to their utmost Extent the natural Advantages of Great Britain. By John Campbell, LL. D. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. boards. Durham. [Concluded.]*

AFTER concluding his laborious Survey of Great Britain, Dr. Campbell proceeds to her colonies. He observes, that the practice of establishing colonies for the benefit of

commerce, was early introduced by the wisest nations of ancient times; as the Egyptians, Chinese, Phœnicians, &c. who in devising such an expedient were influenced by the soundest maxims of policy. The commercial advantages of colonization are so generally admitted, that ever since the discovery of America this principle has been held as an essential object of regard, by almost all the maritime powers of Europe. A few individuals, it must be acknowledged, have represented the establishment of colonies as injurious to the country from whence they emigrate; being in their opinion a perpetual source of depopulation, and tending rather to weaken than augment the prosperity of the parent state. This idea, however, though perhaps conformable to the suggestions of crude theoretical speculation, is fully refuted by experience, the sovereign and decisive test of every measure of public utility; and we may venture to affirm, that as long as civil and religious liberty is protected by the British constitution, no emigration that can materially affect her internal vigour, will ever be found to take place. Should local oppression incite a few generous spirits to seek for that ease and independence in another country which they cannot enjoy in their own, the political disease must soon cure itself, and the cause be destroyed by the natural operation of the effect. We shall present our readers with the general advantages derived from our colonies, as enumerated in the work before us.

' The British inhabitants in them draw some of the necessaries and many of the conveniences of life from hence. The supplying them with these is a new and very great source of industry, which by affording employment to multitudes, cannot but have an effect in augmenting the numbers as well as contributing to the ease and happiness of our people at home. The having a certain, constant, regular, and increasing market for our commodities and manufactures hath had a very visible effect on almost every branch of our domestic trade. Besides, as the correspondence between us and our countrymen in these remote parts is carried on by sea, this extends our navigation, and hath added amazingly to the number of our shipping, which is another article very advantageous and profitable to the inhabitants of Britain. At the same time by raising and subsisting numbers of hardy and experienced seamen, it evidently contributes to the support of our naval power.

' These, though signal and shining advantages, as plainly conducting to the increasing our riches and strength, are far, very far from being all the benefits that have resulted and continue to result from our settlements. By the returns they make us for goods of every kind that we send them we are enabled, after furnishing our home consumption, to manufacture and export immense quantities of their produce to other countries, which is a farther addition to our commerce, and swells not a little the profit that arises from it. We likewise receive from them many things which we formerly purchased from other nations at their own prices, and which were frequently brought to us in their own bottoms, neither in

some cases were these the greatest inconveniences. Their inexhaustible fisheries are also pregnant with innumerable benefits. The number of our subjects in these parts have been and may be increased without danger, by permitting foreign protestants to settle in them, from whose skill and labour, new improvements may with much probability be expected to arise. What considerably advances the value of these, and many more advantages that might be enumerated is, that they are not only solid and permanent, but belong exclusively to Great Britain, and of which, while we retain our freedom and naval power, we never can be deprived.

The place of which our author first treats in this part of the work, is the fortress, town, and port of Gibraltar, a spot so well known to the ancients that the Grecian Hercules is related to have here built a city. The promontory on which Gibraltar stands is an immense rock, about four hundred and forty yards in perpendicular height. Of this important fortress Dr. Campbell gives the following account.

' On the east side, which is washed by the Mediterranean, the rock is so steep as to be esteemed utterly inaccessible. On the west which looks to the bay it is less rugged, and on this side lie the town and fortifications, by which it is now thought to be rendered impregnable. In regard to the climate, the air when the weather is serene is very thin and pure, and consequently wholesome; but from the beginning of June to the middle of September, it is exceedingly warm. In the winter it is subject to very heavy rains, and the weather is sometimes cold. Snow seldom falls, and does not lie long. Ice is rarely seen, and only on the summit of the rock, where it is very thin. The soil is various; where the town stands, it is red sand, but in some places, and more especially in the clefts of the rock it is black and rich, so that oranges, lemons, grapes, pomegranates, and other fruits grow in the highest perfection, and the whole mountain is covered with shrubs of different kinds, and a great variety of aromatic plants. There is also, which is a great blessing, plenty of excellent water.'

' The town of Gibraltar lies along the bay on the west side of the mountain, on a decline, by which, generally speaking, the rains pass through it freely and keep it clean. The old town was considerably larger than the new, which consists at present of between four and five hundred houses, many of the streets are narrow and irregular, the buildings of different materials, some of natural stone out of the quarries, some of a factitious or artificial stone, and a few of brick. The people are supplied with fresh provisions chiefly from the coast of Barbary, with fruit, roots, and vegetables of all sorts from thence or from their own gardens. Besides what is properly called the town there are several spacious and commodious public edifices erected, such as barracks for the soldiers with apartments for their officers, magazines of different kinds, storehouses for provisions, warehouses, yards, and proper accommodations for the commander of the Mediterranean squadron, and for repairing and heaving down of ships, with very airy, spacious, and noble hospitals for the use of soldiers and seamen when sick. The inhabitants, exclusive of British subjects dependent on the garrison, or who reside there from other motives, consist of some Spaniards, a few Portuguese, a considerable number of Genoese,

Genoese, and about as many Jews, making in the whole between two and three thousand (though some make them much fewer) without reckoning the garrison.

‘ This town may be said to have two ports, the first lying to the north, and which is proper only for tartans and small vessels, covered towards the land by the old mole. The other lying to the south of this between the little and the new mole, is very commodious for larger vessels, and hath a fair stone quay. The bay of Gibraltar is very beautiful and spacious, being in breadth from Europa Point to Point Cabrita about five English miles, and in depth about eight or nine, with several small rivers running into it. The isthmus between this bay and the Mediterranean, on which are the Spanish lines, is about a mile in breadth, and between it and the mountain there is a morass, which is now rendered an inundation.’

When we consider the situation of Gibraltar, with the great advantages resulting from the possession of it, we must admit it to be one of the most honourable and important acquisitions that ever were made by the British arms, and what cannot be relinquished without inflicting the deepest wound on our glory and maritime power.

From Gibraltar the political surveyor directs his course to the island of Minorca, which we took from the Spaniards in the year 1708. In length it is about thirty-three miles, and in breadth from eight to twelve. Of the natural history of Minorca we are presented with the following account.

‘ This island, small as it is, contains many commodities that are or might be rendered of considerable value. In the bowels of the earth are iron, copper, lead ores, of none of which except the last hath hitherto any use been made, and even the working of this it is said hath long been discontinued. Great quantities of marble, very beautiful and finely variegated. Free-stone and limestone in plenty, and an excellent kind of slate that might be raised in any quantities, and is very near the water. The surface thin as it is produces excellent wheat, though not enough for the consumption of the inhabitants, as also barley, and some India corn, not inferior to any in America. In respect to fruits they have great plenty of vines which bear both white and red grapes, from which they make a considerable quantity of wine. They have also olives, dates, almonds, oranges, lemons, limes, pomegranates, figs, &c. hemp and flax grow in great perfection, and from some trials that have been made it is known they might have large quantities of admirable cotton. They grow likewise some very good tobacco, but not half as much as they consume, as also capers and annis. Their kitchen gardens are exceedingly well stocked, and the vegetables they produce are not inferior to those of any other country.

‘ As to animals that serve for food, there are in this island black cattle, small in size, and in general poor and lean, which arises chiefly from the carelessness of the people who dislike fat, for with proper attention they have been and may be rendered as good as any of their size. Sheep also are small, their wool nei-

ther very coarse or very fine, yet such as furnishes the inhabitants with cloth for their own wear, and some of their wool likewise they export. Goats are larger in proportion, but are eat only by the poorest people. Their swine are large, and as the Minorquins have a relish for their fat, they are well fed and afford great plenty of excellent meat. They have no deer or hares, but rabbits in great plenty. In reference to beasts of burthen they have a breed of small horses, which for want of grass and hay are fed with chopped straw and a little barley mixed with it, so that though they seem to have spirit they have little strength. On the other hand their asses are large, and are made use of both for the saddle and plough. Mules are large, strong, and fit for all kinds of service, being esteemed full as good as any on the continent of Spain. They have all sorts of domestic fowl, and these very good in their respective kinds. Wild fowl and water fowl of all sorts, and many birds of passage, with which their tables are plentifully supplied in all seasons. They have eels and smelts, with a great variety of sea and shell fish in as great abundance as they can wish. They have no wild beasts, but many birds of prey, such as eagles, hawks, and owls. There are also snakes, vipers, scorpions, with some other venomous and troublesome reptiles and insects; yet not in such numbers as might be expected in so warm and moist a country.'

Our author delivers an accurate topographical description of the four terminos, or districts into which the island is divided. The rental of the landed property, we are told, does not exceed twelve thousand a year, and the public revenue amounts to about a third of this sum. The annual expence of Minorca to Great Britain, is said to be about seventy thousand pounds, exclusive of the charge of the ordnance and marine, the repairs of buildings and other contingencies. The form of government in this island continues to be the same that was in use before it devolved to Britain, in virtue of the capitulation. It is strictly modelled on the feudal system, and Dr. Campbell justly observes, that notwithstanding it was secured to the inhabitants at their own desire, it is pernicious to their interest. He particularly remarks one obvious absurdity in their constitution, which is, that an appeal lies from their supreme court to the tribunal at Perpignan in Roussillon. We shall extract our author's observations on the advantages accruing from the possession of this important island.

'It must be observed, that it would be very difficult fully to express the numerous benefits that we derive from having so noble, so capacious and so safe an harbour as that of Port Mahon, more especially in so happy a situation, where our ships may be at all times relieved, our squadrons meet with refreshments, and not only these but also with every kind of accommodation and repairs, and where our armaments may be carried on with equal security and secrecy when necessary. The sense and the experience of this hath struck such an awe into all the piratical states of Barbary, who with the emperor of Morocco have all acknowledged by treaties this island part of the dominion of Great Britain, that

we have never had any dispute with them since, except as to Mediterranean passes, in respect to which perhaps we have not been always in the right. Our holding this island hath a very strong influence on the Italian powers, and indeed may be said to render us an Italian power, to whom in that light, our maritime force considered, due respect will be at all times paid. It is in time of war a constant bridle on the ports of Marseilles and Toulon; the former of which for that reason furnished the French king with a very large sum towards defraying the expences of the fleet that was employed to invade it. Its vicinity to the ports of Spain is another circumstance of consequence, and with regard to other benefits flowing from it, it would require too great a space, even supposing it proper, should we attempt to enumerate them.

' This representation, with the reflections that it must necessarily suggest to a judicious politician, would clearly convince him that Minorca ought by no means to be considered as a burthen or dead weight upon Britain. But independant of these it is certain that many other, and those also very considerable benefits might be derived from thence, if due attention was shewn to this country, and proper care taken of its inhabitants. A few intelligent persons sent thither and kept there for some years would put the natives in the way of improving their pastures, which are now miserably bad, and also their arable lands for agriculture must be surely at a very low pass in a country where an ass and a hog sometimes draw together the plough. Their gardens and their orchards with the help of a little skill and application would furnish them with near as great profits as they now draw from their estates. They have many staple commodities, or at least might have them amongst them, which would supply exports to a very considerable amount. Salt, which not only may be made but hath been made, and which is the sole support of the neighbouring island of Yvica, might be obtained in any quantities with little trouble and less expence; which salt, if it was employed in their own fisheries under proper directions, would be more than sufficient to balance all their imports, at least upon their own account. All this will appear to the reader the more practicable, if he recollects the ports that there are in this island and their situation, and is farther told that the inhabitants are as expert seamen, that is, for the Mediterranean, as any of their neighbours.'

Taking his departure from the British territories in Europe, the learned observator proceeds to our settlements in Asia, of which the first he mentions is the island of St. Helena. This island is placed in nearly the latitude of sixteen degrees south, and in the longitude of one degree west from the Lizard; it is about six miles long, and scarcely four in breadth. Our author, with his usual accuracy, enumerates many particulars relative to the natural history of this island.

' The climate, says he, of this little island may be justly stiled excellent, for notwithstanding its vicinity to the line, the heat is so qualified by breezes continually flying over the rocks, and the air is so frequently cooled by short refreshing showers that it is equally pleasant and wholesome, as appears from the inhabitants being in a manner free from diseases, and of as clear complexions as in Europe. It is said that they never have the small pox in

their own little world, but are extremely apt to catch the disease, if they remove out of it. It is also very remarkable that they are exempt from thunder and lightning. In its appearance St Helena seems to be no more than a congeries of rude rough rocks, amongst which the natural soil is red, friable, and resembles ashes, from which circumstances, and the finding of sulphur in many of the cliffs, some have conjectured there was once a vulcano. To the windward it is utterly inaccessible. To the leeward there are but few landing places, and those difficult and dangerous from the surf: so that the people may be said to live in a place which nature has impaled with rocks, and surrounded with the ocean. The interior of the island hath also many high and steep cliffs, but there are some little pleasant vallies between them, and rude and dangerous as these rocks are, the inhabitants with very little assistance from art have made roads through them, which they and more especially their slaves pass with great speed and facility, and which is much more wonderful, have taught their horses to do the like, so that how dreadful soever their journeys may appear to strangers, yet it is generally agreed that very few accidents happen to the natives, who think all these inconveniences are balanced by their living in perfect security.

All the advantages which this island derives from nature have been stated in the former paragraph, whatever is found in it beside may be stiled truly exotic. The soil is generally very thin, though in some of the vallies it is now become near two feet deep, and from the regular intervals of rain and sunshine very fertile. Hitherto they have not been able to raise wheat, but of late years (if I am rightly informed) they have sown barley with success. Their gardens produce yams, plantains, bananas, water melons, as also French beans, purslain, sorrel, and many other wholesome herbs, most of them antiscorbutic. As to trees they have oranges, lemons, apricots, peaches, pomegranates, apples, and by the care of the company in sending a French gentleman, Mr. Poirier thither, vines which produce excellent grapes, of which hitherto however they have not been able to make wine. In reference to animals they have a sufficient stock of black cattle, sheep, goats, and hogs, with a breed of spirited little horses, admirably suited to their rugged roads. They have also plenty of domestic fowl, such as turkeys, geese, ducks, Guinea fowl, and other poultry; and for game they have pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, and plenty of sea birds. Yet the chief support of the natives is drawn from the sea, which abounds with a vast variety of excellent fish, amongst other mackerel, bonettas, conger eels, &c. It is a kind of negative advantage that they have not either beasts or birds of prey, or venomous creatures of any kind. But with rats and mice the island is exceedingly infested, for the destruction of which no effectual method hath yet been found. In the cavities of the rocks, the sea water by the help of the sun is turned into the finest white salt. Let me have leave to add, though none of our writers mention it, my conjecture, that they have also upon these rocks the orchilla weed, as it is certain they have a kind of wild tobacco which might possibly by transplanting be improved. We must not omit the principal blessing of St. Helena, which is plenty of most excellent water streaming from the rocks, and wandering in little rivulets through every part of the island. It is true that after heavy rains the water is apt to be a little brackish occasioned by the washing down the salt incrusted on the rocks, but with a very little

little attention in collecting water in cisterns in milder seasons; this inconvenience is easily avoided.'

Dr. Campbell afterwards surveys the presidency of Bombay on the coast of Malabar, the presidency of Fort St. George on the coast of Choromandel, the presidency of Fort William at Calcutta in Bengal, and that of Fort Marlborough near Ben-coolen, in the island of Sumatra; of all which settlements he shews the great advantages to the nation. In the next chapter, he delivers an account of the British forts and settlements for the protection of commerce in Africa; and in the subsequent division of the work, he arrives at the British colonies and settlements in America, where the objects that first pass under his observation are the northern parts of the continent, viz. Hudson's-bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, or the province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, New England, New York, the Jerseys, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Proceeding southward, on the continent, he next delivers an account of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and East and West Florida. He then directs his attention successively to the Bahama and the Bermudas Islands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, the Leeward and Virgin Islands, St. Vincent, Grenada, the Grenadines, Tobago, and Dominica. We shall present our readers with the account of Tobago, as being an island of which the state is not yet generally known.

' The climate notwithstanding its vicinity to the line is so tempered by breezes from the sea, as to be very supportable even to Europeans, and hath the same advantages with that of Grenada in having regular seasons, and also in being exempt from hurricanes. There are throughout the island many rising grounds, though, except at the north-east extremity, there is no part of it that can be styled mountainous, and even there the country is far from being rugged or impassable. The soil, if we may credit either Dutch or French writers, is as fertile and luxuriant, if not more so, than any of the islands, and very finely diversified. Ground provisions of all sorts have been raised in the greatest plenty, a vast variety of vegetables excellent in their kind, some for food, some for physic. Almost every species of useful timber is to be found here, and some of an enormous size, amongst others the true cinnamon and nutmeg trees, as the Dutch confess, and of which none could be better judges. Whole groves of sassafras, and of trees that bear the true gum copal, with other odoriferous plants that render the air wholesome and pleasant. As well watered as can be wished, with rivers that fall into the sea on both sides, many smaller streams, and fine fresh springs in almost every part of the island. The sea coast is indented by ten or twelve fair and spacious bays, and there are amongst these one or two ports capable of receiving as large ships as ever visited those seas. Wild hogs in great plenty, abundance of fowls of different kinds, and a vast variety of sea and river fish. With all these advantages it may be safely concluded, that with proper cultivation this for its size will be rendered as lucrative as any of our possessions in America, and what gives

gives greater weight to this assertion is, that during the short time the Dutch were possessed of it, this character of Tobago was fully justified by experience.

In the mountainous part near the sea there are a few native Indians settled, who are as quiet, harmless, and docile creatures as can be imagined, so that if they should be of no service, it is certain they cannot give us the least umbrage. At the north-east extremity lies Little Tobago, which is two miles long, and about half a mile broad, very capable of improvement. It is indeed amazing with what alacrity and success the settling this isle hath been carried on, and how great a progress is already made not only on the coast but through the whole interior part of the country, to which the numerous bays, wherein ships may load and discharge their cargoes with perfect ease and safety, have not a little contributed, insomuch that if our most recent informations may be depended upon, there are upwards of forty sugar estates on the island, and others are daily forming, so that in the space of a few years there is the greatest probability that its produce will be equal to what is received from some of our Leeward Islands.

After finishing his Survey, the learned author gives a comprehensive view of the commercial interests of Great Britain, wherein he judiciously considers our traffic with foreign countries, our coasting trade, with that between Britain and Ireland, and the nature and importance of inland trade. He further illustrates the beneficial effects resulting to those nations from industry and commerce, and concludes with inculcating the expediency of yet greater improvements.

We had proceeded but a little way in the perusal of this great work before we discovered the learned author's extensive knowledge of his subject\*, which became still more conspicuous as we advanced farther in our Review. Having at length brought our account of it to a conclusion, we may affirm, that such a minute and faithful delineation of the state of the British empire, enriched with the proposed improvements of which it is shewn to be yet susceptible, was never before published, as we find amassed in this Political Survey. Dr. Campbell has exceeded in his judicious remarks and proposals the whole accumulated ideas of former writers on the various subjects of which he treats. Amidst the prodigious extent of his researches he appears to have drawn his observations from the most genuine and authentic sources, and to have devised the great variety of economical improvements which he suggests, from a distinct view of the local circumstances of the British dominions in every quarter of the globe. Whatever expedients, founded on industry and commerce, wisdom and policy can invent for our national aggrandizement, this respectable author has here submitted to the consideration of his country; and should these united kingdoms ever attain

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxvii. p. 333.

to the pinnacle of domestic grandeur and prosperity, it must be by the prosecution of such salutary means as are recommended in the course of this work. We shall only subjoin to its character, that the blemishes it contains are such as arise from the erudition of the author, who, it must be acknowledged, is sometimes profuse in his marginal citations, to a degree scarce short of affectation. To many readers, however, even this circumstance may prove advantageous, by introducing them to an acquaintance with a variety of writers, both in the ancient and modern languages.

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IV. *Philosophical and Critical Observations on the Nature, Characters, and various Species of Composition.* By John Ogilvie, D.D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Robinson. [Concluded.]

IN the second volume of this work, Dr. Ogilvie treats of the various species of composition, as distinguished into the simple, perspicuous, elegant, sublime, nervous, and correct: but previous to these subjects, he delivers observations on the style of Composition in general, with its discriminating properties and defects. As in the preceding part of his plan, our author had enquired into those faculties of the mind which produce or influence composition, he now proceeds to examine the characteristics by which its excellence or demerit may be determined; an enquiry which leads him to the very sources of critical observation.

He begins with enumerating the various causes which may operate upon the judgment in forming an estimation of literary productions; the principal of which he conceives to be prepossession. He afterwards explains at considerable length the obstacles which retarded the improvement of philosophical composition for some ages after the fall of the Roman empire.

'The minds of men, says he, were at this time occupied in every province of the empire by attending either to the ravages of the barbarous nations attacking it on all sides, or to the more alarming internal dissensions which divided the christian church, and gave full scope to the suggestions of superstition, as the growth of heterodox opinions, and not the general corruption of manners was deemed to be the cause of every repeated disaster. Each sect had here a field to retort the accusation from one to another; and while men's hearts were heated with rancour and animosity, or their dread excited by the imminent danger of losing their possessions, it is surely not to be wondered at, that their sentiments became perplexed, their learning contracted, and their language inelegant.'

'In this series of events it is that we are to search for the true cause of the decline of the finer arts, and of the darkness in which for many ages these continued to be enveloped. History affords

us many examples of barbarous nations who, after having subdued people more improved than themselves, have in the course of a few ages adopted the laws, the manners, and the learning of the conquered. Here however the case was altogether different. The subdued nations became assimilated (at least in a great measure) to their barbarous conquerors. Whence ariseth this striking difference?—From this cause undoubtedly, that every object worthy of imitation (with regard to the circumstances abovementioned) had been cancelled among the conquered nations before they submitted to a foreign yoke. The wretched remains of their former excellence were still indeed to be met with:—but these, insufficient to improve a people altogether uncultivated, were mixed with absurd and extravagant hypotheses; by which means a group of dissimilar, often discordant objects were presented to the mind, which it required the efforts of mankind not in one but in many ages to expel as the offspring of error, and to substitute proportion and symmetry in its room. Superstition in these times, untainted by the dictates of temperate philosophy, suggested imaginary evils which passed immediately for realities; and these dreams inculcated in language swelling into fustian, chiming into quibble, loaded with ornament, or pointed with unmeaning antithesis, made an impression upon minds unacquainted with any superior style of eloquence, adequate in every respect to the purposes which it was calculated to produce.

‘ There is, it will be observed, this invariable affinity betwixt sentiment and the language in which it is conveyed, that though the diction may be smooth and mellifluous when the thoughts are wholly superficial, yet when these last are just and pertinent, forced ornaments and little conceits are seldom or never to be met with in the other. Sentiments judiciously applied, and distinctly comprehended, support themselves by their own intrinsic worth, and require only to be placed before the mind in simple, clear, and appropriated words. The same remark may be applied to illustrations. These (which in all works of length are indispensable) may be made to represent their objects in a very animated manner, when the words are forcible without being turgid, and the image strong though perfectly natural. When language on the contrary is obviously strained, and the words thrown out of their natural arrangement into irregular combinations, there is generally some corresponding affectation in the thought which will marr the effect arising ultimately from all. ’

‘ During the continuance of those ages that elapsed from the decline of the Roman empire after the removal of the imperial seat, to the revival of letters in the sixteenth century, the faults that we have thus enumerated as characterising the style of composition, we may affirm to have been principal causes, not only of the ignorance and consequently the rude manners of men, but of the duration of both so distant a period.’

Dr. Ogilvie endeavours to prove the influence of elegant composition on the civilization of mankind, by a variety of observations drawn from the nature of the human mind, and the evidence of history. His remarks on this subject, which he intends hereafter to pursue at greater length, are ingenious and just; but we shall proceed to the second section, where he treats of Simple Composition.

He considers simplicity of composition as comprehending a relation to words and images, and represents it as produced by expressions well chosen, properly arranged, and so well adapted to the nature of the subject, that the mind perceives in them neither abundance nor defect. Improper diffusion and conciseness, he observes, are equally destructive of simplicity; in confirmation of which remark, he produces an opposite instance from Persius.

' Among the ancients there is perhaps no writer who more frequently loseth sight of simplicity by this affectation of peculiar brevity, than the satyrist Persius. Perhaps indeed of all the other branches of composition, satire is that in which it is most necessary to render a stroke energetical by a mode of expression at the same time concise and forcible. But the poet abovementioned will surely be deemed by every intelligent reader to have erred in attempting to imitate this beauty. The very first line of his poem present to us sentiments that appear disjointed, because the language is defective in which these are represented.'

O curas hominum! O quantum est in rebus inane!—

Quis leget hæc?—Min' tu istud ais?—Nemo hercule Nemo.

Vel duo, vel nemo—Turpe, & miserabile. Quare?

Ne mihi Polydamus, & Troiades Labeonem

Pretulerint.—Nugæ, &c.

In these verses the thoughts obviously seem to want connection, from too scanty a proportion of words. After having mentioned the vanity of human enjoyments, we are not aware that the expression "Quis leget hæc?" which is abrupt enough in the beginning of the second line of his satire, is designed to strike at the manners of the Romans, then so degenerated as to read nothing that bore the semblance of morality. Again, in the lines immediately following, the sense requires him to have said—"As Hector was afraid lest the Trojans should prefer Polydamus to him, so am I alarmed lest our Polydamus (Nero) should prefer Labeo to me."—But by leaving out the word (vereor) "I am afraid" the sense is left uncompleted.'

Our author with great justice censures the opinion of those who restrict simplicity to any particular species of composition, affirming it to be unquestionably the indispensable characteristic of all good writing; and he produces examples, chiefly from the ancient poets, shewing that the sublime, the picturesque, the nervous, and the pathetic species of composition, are each in the greatest perfection, when consisting of words the plainest and most simple. Simplicity of expression he also very justly considers as peculiarly beautiful and proper in representing the language of passion. Here he observes, that there are two methods of operating strongly upon the human heart, which, though different in other respects agree in requiring an invariable simplicity of diction. 'One is when a climax is carried on, either in reasoning or in description, from lesser to more important objects, until the whole becomes

highly and universally interesting :—the other ariseth from some judicious and happy imitation of nature in a particular occurrence, when her language is so significantly adopted as to make a powerful, as immediate impression upon the heart.' He illustrates the force of a pathetic story related in a few unadorned expressions, by Livy's affecting account of Lucretia, on which he makes some pertinent remarks.

Our author next enquires into what constitutes simplicity in the ornamental beauties of discourse ; and this he represents as consisting in a just proportion of apposite images, such as illustrate the subject, without producing satiety, or savouring of impertinent ostentation.

' That an object may be distinctly placed before the mind, says he, it is requisite that the metaphor which conveys it should be followed out just as far as illustration requires, and no farther. Simplicity, as we have already evinced, excludes every degree of superfluity. When images are opened, expanded, and traced elaborately through a variety of circumstances, the mind loses sight of the original idea :—its proportion is no longer observed, and attention flags insensibly because it is not kept awake by the current of sentiment. We may observe likewise, that in philosophical, or even sentimental performances (as they are called), this attention to extend and expatiate upon every minute circumstance of an illustration, usually indicates sterility both of the reasoning and inventive faculty. Of the first, because thoughts in this case appear to rise very slowly when the mind is so intent upon drawing out each with every possible enlargement :—of the last, because a vigorous imagination is displayed by the variety, not the laboured decoration of its images ; and by rendering each significant, but neither tedious nor overwrought.

' While we avoid in this manner the error of pursuing images too closely, we must take care not to fall into the opposite extreme of *mixing* these improperly. This fault is occasioned by our taking only a partial view of an illustration by which its disproportion to the original in some particular circumstance escapes observation. In order to make the whole complete, the mind adopts insensibly some similar metaphor, and thus jumbles separate images together in the same description. A great genius is often led into this fault, by giving a loose to the exuberance of imagination. When Demosthenes, speaking of Aeschines says, that after lying in wait to destroy an honest or upright member of the commonwealth, as soon as he has found an opportunity to accomplish his purpose, " he bursts like a tempest from his place of retreat ;" the image here employed is no doubt incomparably expressive and significant.—But when immediately after he is described with the orator's other enemies, " like a wild beast furiously assaulting him ;" and in order to preserve the force of both illustrations he concludes with saying, that such assaults had failed of " rendering him cold in the cause of his country," we are sensible of an improper mixture of images. An adversary falling out like a whilwind, and carrying all before him, may be compared with propriety to a tempest freezing and desolating the earth. But the beauty of the first epithet (chilling or freezing) is lost when

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considered as a consequence arising from the assault of a wild beast, and the images are therefore said to be blended improperly.'

This fault of mixing incongruous metaphors has been humorously exposed by Mr. Addison, in the Spectator, but is a blemish from which some of the most eminent writers are not exempted.

True simplicity our author observes, is likewise incompatible with all affected brilliance and prettiness of expression; and in support of this remark, which is universally admitted to be just, he produces two instances from Ovid, who abounds in false ornaments of this nature.

' Ovid, among all the ancients, appears to have fallen most frequently into this fault. The most dignified personages in his fable, are tainted with this bias of the poet. Thus Phœbus in his address to Phaeton, though interested as a father to dissuade him from a ruinous attempt, and speaking with fervent affection, yet uses this low kind of wit (as Addison justly calls it) by which, supposing the story to be true, he must have greatly sunk in the reader's estimation:

*Si mutabile pectus*

*Sit tibi, conciliis, non curribus utere nostris.* Met. lib. ii.

In the story of Narcissus, the same affectation characteriseth his description. When the youth, heated in the chase, retires to quench his thirst at the cooling fountain, and first beholds with admiration and love his own beautiful face, the poet describes his first emotions by saying,

*Dum stum sedare cupid; sitis altera crevit;*

" while he strived to quench one thirst he raised another," i. e. the thirst of gazing with consuming desire on his own beauty. These childish quibbles which the author designed for ornaments to this (otherwise) noble poem, are incompatible with that simplicity which is constituted by a natural though happy disposition of the fittest words, conveying ideas to the mind with ease and perspicuity.'

It is generally acknowledged that the sacred writings contain the most genuine strokes of simplicity that are any where to be found. Of these, the author, for the illustration of his subject, has selected the beautiful description of the scene presented to the spectators who went on the third day to visit the sepulchre of our Saviour. As another instance of unaffected simplicity he cites a passage in the conclusion of the Iliad, when the gods being engaged in combat with each other, Apollo addresses Neptune in the following sentiment and admired simile,

*Ευογγιαί, οὐκτού με σποφέσσα μιδόσαι  
Εμμεναι, εἰ δη σρι γέ. Βρέσταν ἔρενα πολεμίζω  
Φελανη, οι φιλλοσθεν εοικοτες, ελλοτε μεν τε οι λας πολεμούσαι  
Ζαφλεγεες τελεθουσιν αρουρης καρπον εδουτες,  
Αλλοτε δ' αν φθιτυθουσιν ακηριοι.*

—To

## To combat for mankind

Ill suits the wisdom of celestial mind.  
For what is man?—Calamitous by birth,  
They owe their life and nourishment to earth;  
Like yearly leaves that now with beauty crown'd  
Smile on the sun, now wither on the ground. POPE.

After displaying the nature and beauty of simplicity, our author examines by what means this excellence may be acquired; and the perusal of the most approved writers, without imitating any particular standard of composition, is the method he recommends for the purpose.

In treating of perspicuity in Composition, he illustrates this indispensable quality as relating to philosophy, history, poetry, and eloquence; pointing out at the same time the rules whereby it may be attained, and the causes from which the defect of it proceeds.

Elegant Composition is the species which the author next examines, and this he considers under two heads, as distinguished by graces either in sentiment or expression. He produces a variety of examples to illustrate the subject, and points out the means of discovering this attractive quality in each of those provinces. Respecting the difficulty of acquiring elegance, the author delivers his opinion in the following passage.

' In the sphere of composition, as no excellence whatever is more universally envied and admired than that of elegance, so there is none in every sense more difficult to be acquired. This is obvious, from the bad success of many attempts that have been made to imitate writings distinguished by this character. Among the imitators of the manner of Anacreon, few have ever been able to catch the spirit, and transfuse the graces of this original. Plato in the same manner stands unrivalled among Greek philosophers, and Horace and Petronius among the Romans. A man must have received from nature a power of perceiving certain exquisite connexions, in order to be denominated elegant in the sense assigned here to that epithet, and a facility of selecting and of applying those graces to description or sentiment, that are just the most suitable and becoming. We must make a distinction however betwixt these powers, the one of which regards perception, and the other execution. Though neither are conferred universally, yet many persons are enabled by the former to observe and to feel the effect arising from an assemblage of objects elegantly decorated, who yet would fail in an attempt to form so beautiful a combination; because with sensibility to relish these beauties when presented to the mind, its powers may be inadequate to the task of creating them. That energy of thought by which the most appropriated colouring is immediately applied to ideas, and the most suitable expression is selected with ease to render these universally agreeable, is wholly distinct from the power by which we judge of a just or inadequate combination; the last of which extends no further than to enable the person possessed of it to avoid gross defects in composition, and to be characterised upon the whole by negative description.'

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The succeeding section of the work is employed on sublime Composition, a species which has been treated by one of the most eminent critics of ancient times. The author, however, that he may avoid repeating the sentiments of Longinus, endeavours to consider the subject in a new point of view. For this purpose he examines the criteria which constitute sublimity in the several provinces of composition; shewing how the true may be distinguished from the false sublime, and by what method to improve a natural disposition to this great and admired quality. In considering sublimity as produced by an abrupt interrogation, we meet with the following pertinent remark on a passage in Quintilian.

"This method of becoming sublime, acquires its excellency principally from exciting surprize, which an interrogation, or a series of these, may awaken, so as to make a very powerful impression. Here we must take care, however, not to include, under the denomination of sublimity, such strokes of eloquence as may have strength and pathos, though without that character of just elevation which constitutes this excellency. Without keeping this distinction in our eye, we shall be apt to confound with each other characters of Composition perfectly distinct; and what we do not thoroughly comprehend, we cannot hope successfully to imitate. Quintilian, distinguished as he usually is, by exquisite taste as well as accurate discernment, seems somewhat inadvertently to have fallen into this mistake, by an example he produceth of sublimity from an oration of Cicero. Having made much the same distinction betwixt a comparison and translation, as figures of rhetoric, which we have found Aristotle making betwixt an image and a metaphor, b. I. sect. vi. p. 112. he proceeds to observe, that a wonderful degree of sublimity is often obtained by the translation as it is called, i. e. the giving life and action to an object wholly inanimate. The following bold interrogations, addressed to Tubero, he produceth as an example.—‘ Quid enim tuus ille Tubero destrictus in acie Pharsalica gladius agebat? Cujus latus ille mucro petebat? Quis tensus erat armorum tuorum?’ Cicer. pro Ligar. Quintil. lib. viii. cap. 6. The personification in this passage is undoubtedly strong and masterly in an eminent degree. But is it not an instance rather of the bold that animates, and of the new that surpriseth, than of the grand that swells and elevates the imagination? These are spheres that ought always to be considered as different; a point that can only be obtained by bringing to the standard of certain established rules, every example that falls under our cognisance, as we shall thus be able to refer every effect to its proper principle, and will be unembarrassed in our decisions."

The ingenious author then proceeds to treat of Nervous Composition, where he considers it as produced by sentiment, diction, illustrations, and images. He afterwards endeavours to account for the casual inequality, with respect to strength of composition, frequently observable in the writings of the same author; concluding with general remarks on the causes which diminish the energy of language in particular cases.

and on the most proper method for avoiding or correcting this effect. The seventh and last section is allotted to Correct Composition.

The work which Dr. Ogilvie has here presented to the public, delineates, in a great measure, the theory and practice of Composition; comprehending not only a developement of the influence exerted on this subject by the different faculties of the mind, but likewise such general rules and observations as are adapted for carrying the art to perfection. Even those readers who are most conversant with critical writings will acknowledge, from the author's remarks, and the new illustrations he produces, that he has freely exercised his own judgment without prepossession or prejudice. Taste, discernment, and learning, equally distinguish his observations, which are in general not less just and solid than remote from petulance and malignity. After this character it would be superfluous to add, that the work cannot fail of being acceptable to the lovers of criticism and polite literature.

V. *State-Papers and Letters, addressed to William Carstares, confidential Secretary to K. William during the whole of his Reign; afterwards Principal of the University of Edinburgh. Relating to public Affairs in Great Britain, but more particularly in Scotland, during the Reign of K. William and Q. Anne. To which is prefixed the Life of Mr. Carstares, Published from the Originals, by Joseph M'Cormick, D. D. Minister at Preston-Pans 4to. 1l. 1s. boards. Cadell. [Concluded.]*

IN our last Review we mentioned a few particulars relative to the life of Mr. Carstares, to whom the letters in this volume are addressed; but as many readers may be desirous of further information, we shall trace his fortune after the demise of his illustrious patron king William, when leaving the court and the bustle of public cares, he retired to the shade of the academy, an eminent example of moderation and disinterestedness.

To those who read the following letters, says the biographer and editor of the work, it will appear almost incredible, that one who was in such favour with the king, who had such easy access to him upon all occasions, who had devoted his life entirely to his service; one, in short, who was daily soliciting for others favours to which he was much better entitled himself, paid so little attention to his own private fortune, as not to provide against an event, which he could not but foresee a considerable time before it happened, and which, he knew, was to deprive him of all that he possessed. The truth is, he had not only a spirit above all mercenary views, but an excess of modesty, which led him to shun whatever might give his enemies any pretence for the imputation of them.

them. Hence, with all the opportunities that ever any man possessed of bettering his fortune, he was left, upon his master's death, as poor as when he first entered into his service; a circumstance which never gave him one moment's uneasiness. Endowed by nature with a happy equanimity of temper, accustomed to various vicissitudes of fortune, he could, with equal ease, adapt himself to the manners of a court, or to the life of a private man; and the only circumstance he ever regretted in the change of his fortune was the event which produced it.

It was generally thought by his contemporaries, that, upon his coming over with king William, he had the offer of the first vacant bishopric in England, and that he absolutely declined it. This story was probably founded upon his known interest with the king; but it seems to have been without foundation. In truth, Mr. Carstares was of much more importance, and had it more in his power to serve his king and his country in the sphere in which he acted, than if he had been promoted to any bishopric in England. As the king was abundantly sensible of this, as he knew his talents for business, and had occasion for them, it is more than probable that he never thought of making such an offer to him. At the same time, such were Mr. Carstares's sentiments of propriety and consistency of character, that, it is next to certain, if the offer of it had been made, he would have rejected it.

As his connection with public business was entirely founded upon personal favour with the late king, it ceased in a great measure upon his demise. However, he had too many friends at court, and was of too great consequence to government, to be entirely forgotten or neglected in the succeeding reign; and queen Anne, although not much inclined to countenance king William's particular favourites; yet, without any solicitation, nominated him her chaplain for Scotland, with the same appointments which had been annexed to that office by king William.

Some time before this, the office of principal in the college of Edinburgh had become vacant, by the death of Dr. Rule; a station far from being lucrative, but, on several accounts, very respectable; especially when filled by one whose learning, talents, and circumstances in life, are suited to the office. In all those respects Mr. Carstares was abundantly well qualified for that chair. Accordingly, when it was understood that he was to retire from court, an invitation was given to him by the city of Edinburgh to accept of that charge; but it was with considerable difficulty he could be prevailed upon to comply. On the one hand, the emoluments of that office were no temptation to him; the life he had led for many years was the reverse of academical; and he was unwilling, at his years, to enter upon a new scene of action. On the other hand, it was an honourable retreat from that hurry and bustle in which he had been involved; it afforded him an opportunity of being further serviceable to his country, by exerting that influence he had acquired, in promoting the interest of literature in the university, and of moderation in the church. But what chiefly determined him was, the united solicitations of all his friends in Scotland. To their importunity he at length yielded, and was admitted as Principal of the college, and first professor of divinity in the university of Edinburgh, in the year 1704.

In this public character, he soon gave ample proof to the world, that his employment as a statesman had not interrupted his literary pursuits. In his first oration, which he pronounced in the com-

mon-hall of the university, before a very numerous and respectable audience, he displayed such a fund of erudition, such a thorough acquaintance with classical learning, such a masterly talent in composition, and, at the same time, such ease and fluency of expression in the purest Latin, as delighted all his auditors. Even his enemies were obliged to confess, that in him were united the manners of a gentleman with the science of a scholar. The famous Dr. Pitcairn, who was always one of his hearers upon these occasions, used to observe, that when Mr Carstares began to address his audience, he could not help fancying himself transported to the Forum in the days of ancient Rome.'

Mr. Carstares was soon after appointed one of the ministers of Edinburgh, in which capacity he also acquitted himself with great applause. His manner of preaching, we are told, was warm and animated, and his style at the same time correct.

It appears from several letters that he was consulted on every thing respecting the union of the two kingdoms; and for his influence in preventing any opposition to that transaction from the presbyterian clergy, he had the honour of receiving thanks from the queen, upon his going to court the year after. In so great esteem was Mr. Carstares held at court, that we find a letter written in the year 1713, by the earl of Oxford, then lord high treasurer, desiring he would name the commissioner to the general assembly, and send up a copy of such instructions as he judged expedient at that juncture.

Mr. Carstares died upon the 28th of December 1715, and is thus characterised by Dr. M' Cormick.

'His religion was neither tinctured with the extravagancies of enthusiasm, nor the rigours of superstition. At the same time, amidst the greatest hurry of secular affairs in which he was involved, he was always ready to discharge the duties of his pastoral office. As his piety was unfeigned, so his charity was unbounded, more so indeed than his circumstances could well afford; for, whilst he had one farthing remaining in his pocket, he could not turn aside from any necessitous object that claimed his assistance. This was so well known to the poor, that, whenever he went abroad, he was perpetually harrassed by them, and was at last obliged to submit to a regulation, proposed to him by one of his friends who knew his foible; which was, to put only so much money in his pocket as he could conveniently spare for the purposes of ordinary charity.'

'Amidst that multiplicity of business in which he was perpetually engaged, it is remarkable, that he found abundance of leisure for the duties of hospitality. His house was a place of resort to all the youth of the best families and the most promising hopes, who were generally recommended to his attention during their course at the university; and he failed not to improve the opportunities which his station afforded him, of instilling into their minds, along with an ardour for study, the best regulations for their future conduct. Many of them, who have since acted their part in the most

most conspicuous stations, have not scrupled to own that it was to him they were indebted for the best maxims both in public and private life. Archibald duke of Argyle, in particular, was early recommended to him by his father, and continued to advise with him in every matter of importance in which he was concerned, from the time he entered upon public life, until Mr Carstares's death. See Letters from Lord Ilay.

' The clergy of all denominations were welcome to his family; particularly such of the episcopal clergy as were deprived of their livings at the revolution. He always treated them with peculiar tenderness and humanity. He often relieved their families when in distress, and took care to dispense his charities in such a manner as he knew would be least burthensome to them. Some of them, who were his yearly pensioners, never knew from what channel their relief flowed, till they found by his death that the source of it was dried up.'

' He was sometimes ingenious in devising methods of imposing upon the modesty and pride of such as would have rejected his good offices with disdain, if he had not disguised his intentions. We shall give one instance out of many that are told of him.'

' One Caddel, an ejected episcopal clergyman, sometimes waited upon him when he came to Edinburgh. One day, when Caddel came to call upon him, he observed that his cloaths were threadbare; and, eying him narrowly as he went away, he desired him to call again two days after, pretending he had some commission to give him before he went to the country. He was no sooner gone, than Mr Carstares sent for his taylor, and desired him to make a suit of cloaths that would answer himself as to length, but not so wide by two or three inches, and to have them sent home about the hour at which Caddel had engaged to call upon him. Caddel kept his appointment; but, upon entering the room, found Mr Carstares in a violent fit of passion at his taylor for mistaking his measure, so that neither coat, waistcoat, nor breeches would sit upon him. At last, turning to Caddel, who agreed with him that it was impossible he could ever wear them; then, says he, they are lost if they don't fit some of my friends; and, by the bye, adds he, I am not sure but they may answer you: be so good as to try, for it is a pity they should be thrown away. Caddel complied, after some importunity; and, to his surprize, found they answered as if they had been made for him; upon which Mr Carstares ordered the cloaths to be packed up, and sent to his lodgings. Next day, upon putting them on, he found a ten pound note in one of the pockets, which he naturally imagined Mr Carstares had forgot to take out when he threw off the cloaths. Returning directly to the college, he told Mr Carstares, he had come to restore him a note, which he had neglected to take out of the pocket of the suit of cloaths he had sent him. By no means, says he, Caddel, it cannot belong to me; for when you got the coat you acquired a right to every thing in it.'

' The effect which his generosity to that body of men had, in overcoming their prejudices against him, and conciliating their affections, appeared strong at his funeral. When his body was laid in the dust, two men were observed to turn aside from the rest of the company, and, bursting into tears, bewail their mutual loss. Upon inquiry, it was found they were two non-jurant clergymen, whose families, for a considerable time, had been supported by his benefactions.'

Previous to the letters in this collection we are presented with an abstract of the history of the persons, by whom they were written; copied from a manuscript in the possession of the earl of Hyndford, which is said to have been intended for the private use of princess Sophia, and the elector of Hanover. The correspondents are, secretary Johnson, the duke of Ar-gyle, earl of Seafield, earl of Cromarty, earl of Melville, lord advocate sir James Stewart, duke of Queensberry, duke of Athol, marquis of Annanale, Mr. Carstares, earl of Stairs, Cockburn of Ormiston, Murray of Philliphaugh, earl of Marchmont, sir Hugh Dalrymple president of the court of session, and Andrew Fletcher of Salton. As a specimen of this historical abstract, we shall lay before our readers the character of the gentleman last mentioned, being one of the most striking.

' He is a gentleman of a good estate in Scotland, with the improvement of a good education. He was knight of the shire of Lothian to that parliament to which the duke of York was commissioner, in the reign of king Charles II. and openly opposed the arbitrary designs of that prince, and the fatal bill of succession; which obliged him wisely to retire, first to England, then to Holland, because the duke of York would not forgive his behaviour in that parliament.

' They summoned him to appear at Edinburgh; which he not daring to do, was declared traitor, and his estate confiscated. He retired to Hungary, and served several campaigns under the duke of Lorrain; returned to Holland after the death of king Charles II. and came over to England with the duke of Monmouth; had the misfortune to shoot the mayor of Line after his landing, and upon that returned to Holland again; from whence he came over with the prince of Orange at the revolution.

' He is a zealous asserter of the liberties of the people, and so jealous of the growing power of all princes, in whom he thinks ambition to be natural, that he is not for entrusting the best of them with a power which they can make use of against the people. As he believes all princes made by, and for the good of the people, he is for giving them no power but that of doing good.

' This made him oppose king Charles, invade king James, and exclaim against giving too much power to king William, whom he never would serve; nor does he come into the administration of queen Anne, but stands up as a pillar of the constitution in the parliament of Scotland.

' He is a gentleman, steady in his principles, of nice honour, with abundance of learning, brave as the sword he wears, a sure friend, and an irreconcileable enemy, would lose his life chearfully to serve his country, but would not do a base thing to save it. His thoughts are large as to religious subjects, and could never be brought within the bounds of any particular sect, nor will he be under the distinction of a Whig or Tory; says these names are but cloaks for the knaves of both sides.

' His notions of government, however, are too fine spun, and can hardly be lived up to by men subject to the common frailties of human nature. Neither will he give allowance for extraordinary

many emergencies; witness the duke of Shrewsbury, with whom he had always been intimate; yet, the duke coming to be secretary a second time, with a view to save his country, this gentleman would never be in common charity with him afterwards. And my lord Spencer, now lord Sunderland, for voting for the army, was used by him after the same manner.

‘ He hath written several good things, but not published in his own name; and hath a very fine genius, full of fire; of low stature, with a stern, sour look.’

In the front of the papers, stand some of Argyle’s letters in cypher, which are famous for their intricacy. Cyphers are likewise sometimes used in a few other letters. We have searched for information respecting the massacre of Glencoe, but can find nothing further than that his majesty’s servants in Scotland were desirous of preventing any enquiry into the affair; an almost unquestionable presumption that they secretly considered the transaction as not wholly void of the royal authority.

It appears from many of these letters, that the Scotch administration found not a little difficulty in appeasing the discontent excited by the king’s conduct respecting the affair of Darien. The subsequent extract will shew in what manner they tampered with the members of the opposition at this time.

\* Earl of Argyle to Mr Carstares.

\* A pleasant Description of the Methods used to carry their Point in Parliament by both sides.—Commissioner Elphinston the fittest Man for a Lord of Session.

‘ SIR,

I had your’s with an account of your success in that affair recommended so earnestly to you. I am now master of the paper; it comprehends all it should do, and no more. If it were possible to tie me more than I was already, this one act of his majesty’s would. These ten days past, those that are forward, of which but few have been very busy, every one of us has taken our tasks. V. Seafield is gone north, I go to-morrow west, and the commissioner stays in town; and we have sent several emissaries among the burrows in Fife and Angus, and thereabouts. Few of the barons can be brought to reason, though I must say, the method now taken has so good an aspect, that I’m in good hopes. None is more forward than lord Arbrucehill; nay, he is brisk and stout beyond his natural temper. Lord Ruthven begins to have his eyes opened, and some others; but I will not give you too good hopes, till I see a little farther. Some has ministers set upon them, some their wives: some shall have drawing plaisters that are sick at heart: so that I am hopeful the fever will over one way or another. You cannot imagine how foolishly they manage their new address; scarce any but a Jacobite has the handing them about; they cause all sort of stuff and rabble sign, or some body sign for them; and all get titles, if it were a taylor, a cottar, nay, the meanest creature, school-boys, what not. I gave the commissioner a particular account of sundries of this sort in writt, which I presume he’ll

transmit to you. We are all now positive that the king's presence would blow all clouds away. You know there is a vacancy now in the session; I shall not say its proper to fill it now; but commissary Elphinston is the fittest man that we can be sure of. I know others are recommended by some, who I can demonstrate their carriage at this time proves they are betraying the king. Time will convince it more to every body's conviction; and I hope to see the time when his majesty may treat them as they deserve, which is, as the worst sort of enemies. When any thing occurs worth the acquainting you, I shall write. I am your's. Adieu.

Duke of Queensberry to Mr Carstares.

Earl Marshal's Pension.—Lord Balcarres.—Nevil Payne.—Money necessary for secret Services; how he will dispose of it.—His own Opinion of the Measures necessary for managing the next Session of Parliament to the King's mind.—Balcarres must undertake for Lord Kelly.—The Money lodged in the Bank to be disposed of by himself;—he has not communicated any thing concerning it, even to Seafield.—Has referred the King to Mr Carstares for particulars.

SIR, I received your letter of the 22d of last month, with E. Marshall's pension, and a warrant for two hundred pounds. My lord Marshall keeps still upon fair generals, and seems to stick upon the head of Caledonia; which has made me keep at a greater distance from him than I intended to have done. He is now going into the country, where some of his friends intend to ply him; for it is needless to attempt it here, where he is constantly kept warm by such persons as are posted about him by lord H. and others of that party. However, if he answer not expectation, what is intended for him shall not be given him. By my last letter to you, I gave it as my opinion, that I could see no danger to the king's affairs, by his majesty's allowing my lord Balcarres to come home; for he can never be so ill a man as to make use of such a favour to the prejudice of his majesty's affairs, when he has already paid so dearly for his tampering, and is now laid under such an obligation. There is, besides his case, which is a mere act of his majesty's goodness, another, wherein we are likely to be puzzled in parliament; I mean that of Nevil Payne: he has been tortured, and very long imprisoned; and he inclined to apply to the privy-council for his liberation, which I have kept off, till I should know his majesty's pleasure about him. He had a recommendation of parliament formerly to the king, and I am afraid that it is not in our power to keep him legally. He will certainly apply to the next session of parliament, and will undoubtedly be set at liberty then; and, probably, with some reflection upon his long imprisonment. I am therefore persuaded, that it is his majesty's interest, either to send me a warrant for discharging him out of prison, or, that he should refer that matter to his privy-council, who will be sure to let him out: so that the frankest way would be, for the king to do it himself; for it will be impossible to keep him in till the parliament be over. I know him to be an empty, vain, talking, lying fellow; and is not much worth the while of any government's concern. The vacancy in the session, of which I wrote to you formerly, must by no means be filled up till after the parliament. There are a great many pretenders, and whoever gets

gets it not will be disengaged; and we must have time to see who deserves it best, and are fittest for it. As to the money which seems necessary for the good of the king and the country's service, after reflection, I am of opinion, that none ought to be remitted here; but that a thousand pound should be lodged, as soon as can be, in the bank of England, and their notes taken for it. There is no use for any known name in them, for they are payable to the bearer; so that, a fictitious, or any servant's name, is sufficient. Let these notes be sent to me hither. I have already laid out £. 500; and, I believe, in a short time, I shall have occasion to dispose of the rest. I do hope, that his majesty's business may be done without putting him to any considerable expence; yet more money than what I now propose may possibly be necessary; but I shall be answerable that it shall not be squandered; and I shall be well assured of satisfactory returns, and doing things effectually before I part with any greater sum of his majesty's cash, I would send you a particular account of the disposal of this; but I do not think it fit, that the matter of secret service be the subject of a letter that may fall into wrong hands; wherefore, I forbear to do it till we meet, either here or at London.

The following letter to Mr. Carstares from Mr. Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, dated Sept. 12, 1709, exhibits an apprehension of such a design against the protestant religion at that period, as we scarcely can imagine to be well founded. It is more than probable that the suspicion there intimated owed its origin to the jealousy of party. But, however this may be, the letter is certainly written in a very puritanical strain.

\* Rev. SIR,

' I must leave it to your candour to excuse my not answering your last most obliging letter; and I refer it to your wisdom and penetration to think of the true reason, which it is not proper for me to express in a letter.'

' I do most humbly and thankfully own the mercy of God, whose unmerited goodness rescued me from the snares which were prepared for me.'

' My soul has been among lions, even the sons of men, whose teeth are spears and arrows, and their tongues sharp swords; but I learn how good it is to wait on the Lord, and to possess one's soul with patience. And I thank God, I do not only heartily forgive them, but I do not look on it as their actings, but say, they are thy hand; and, though I have never offended them, yet I know I daily offend my great Sovereign, and can say, he afflicts me less than I deserve.'

' I beg, sir, you will excuse me thus far opening my soul to so good, so prudent a friend. I cannot forbear now to mention a subject, though it be a very melancholy one, of which I have as often spoken to you as I have been happy in your conversation; that is, the imminent danger to this nation from that dissolution of manners, and abandoning of all principles, so that people unite themselves now by setting up against what I take to be the only bond of friendship, and security of any government, I mean religion: but, now, what used to skulk in corners, and shelter itself under the names of *latitude* and *freethinking*, they publicly own; and deism is

the

The bond of their society, and sufficient to recommend the professors of it to preferment, without any other qualification. From hence it flows, that all the notions of right and wrong are confounded; and the practice is accordingly. Public injuries and breach of faith are joined to private violations of right; so that foreigners say publicly, I mean our own allies, that we are a perfidious nation; and, since we have violated our treaty with Scotland, and laugh at the notion of fundamental and inviolable articles, there is no great wonder if we treat other nations as we do.

It is but a few days since it was openly urged, that the deists, or, to use their own words, *we deists*, (naming some great men), are the only support of government. We keep the episcopal and presbyterian parties in awe, who would else devour and disturb all others. I must frankly own to you, that I cannot see to what end all these endeavours are, and the great charge some people are at to propagate irreligion, if popery be not at the bottom, designed by some cunning head. And it is plain, that the book called *The Rights of the Church* points at an infallible judge upon earth; and I could give you more, even amazing, proofs of such a design, both against the protestant religion in general, and the succession, as established, if it were proper for a letter; but I leave that till it please God I see you, which I hope will be next winter.

In the mean time, give me leave to say, that it will be necessary for your countrymen to think better of their conduct, if they mean either to render themselves considerable, or to preserve themselves and their country from unreasonable and mischievous attempts. You are my witness, that I have always had a very tender regard for that country; and now I have a sort of interest in its peace and welfare, having disposed a child there; so that you will excuse my zeal, and believe me to be, with very great sincerity and regard, reverend sir, your's, &c.'

The letters in this collection contain authentic documents of the history of administration, during an intriguing period in Scotland; but in point of composition, they are distinguished by no degree of elegance, and afford many instances of such vulgar phraseology as men of rank and education ought to avoid, even in the most familiar epistolary correspondence.

**VI. Political Arithmetic. Containing Observations on the present State of Great Britain; and the Principles of her Policy in the Encouragement of Agriculture. Addressed to the Oeconomical Societies established in Europe. To which is added, a Memoir on the Corn Trade: Drawn up and laid before the Commissioners of the Treasury, by Governor Pownall. By Arthur Young, Esq.**  
8vo. 5s. 3d. Boards. Nicoll.

THE subjects of this work are extremely various and important, comprehending no less than every circumstance in national conduct that tends either to the advancement or obstruction of agriculture. In the first part the author examines

mises those points which have proved an encouragement to the art in Great Britain. In the second, he enquires into the means of removing obstacles; and in the third, he reviews several false propositions advanced by other writers. By this arrangement the variety of his matter is kept from confusion, and a due connection preserved through the whole of these parts.

The great design of the work is to shew that the agriculture, wealth, population, and happiness of the lower classes are in this kingdom in a very high degree of perfection; in a much higher than is admitted by several very respectable writers; in proving this we find the subjects of the corn trade, taxation in England, inclosures, luxury, size of farms, prices of provisions, and state of population, treated in a more complete manner than in any other work we have seen; indeed, we conceive this part of Mr. Young's enquiry to be handled with greater ability than he has shewn on any former occasion; having replied to the false ideas of many writers on those subjects in a very sensible manner; of which we shall produce specimens sufficient to justify us in this assertion.

Under the article luxury, the author has started a new argument to shew that luxury, instead of raising, *sinks* the price of meat; which he does in the following words. ‘A late writer seems to condemn what is called luxury, for the waste it creates, for the number of domestic servants, for horses, and for the slaughter of calves and lambs, which he thinks makes mutton and beef dearer. I am sorry I cannot fully agree with him; we both speak of these matters, not with a view to visionary useless ideas of the manners of the people, but relative only to the encouragement of agriculture and increase of plenty: in this light what difference is there between *waste* and *regular consumption*? Between bread eat at my lord’s table, and barley consumed by his hounds, or oats by his horses? All these methods of consumption are nothing to the farmer; the mere purchase of the commodities is what encourages him, in consequence of which he sets heartily about a farther production of them. And how is the consumption of calves and lambs to lessen the quantity of beef and mutton? The farmer brings these things to market because they are demanded: if instead of demanding ten pounds worth of lamb, you go to market for ten pounds worth of beef, he will bring the beef for you. Here is a given demand for beef; it is supplied: luxury adds another for veal, it is supplied, certainly without taking from the beef; and if luxury doubles the demand, the farmers will answer it, and supply the old one of beef besides. But it is said, there is a given number of calves

every

every year; if the consumption of veal was stopped, so many more would of course come to market as beef, and this additional number would surely make beef more plentiful, and consequently cheaper.' Granted.' And so you would encourage the farmer to continue this plenty of beef by lowering the price of it! this is that universal combination which runs through the supply of all sorts of markets. The case of corn has been pretty well understood, but still the remnants of these prejudices hang about us in calves, pigs, lambs, and so forth. On the contrary, you ought to act upon the reverse of these principles. Your given fact is the dearness of beef, and you want permanently to make it cheaper. Your only method is to raise the price. Encourage the slaughter of calves, which is such an encouragement to the breeder and grazier, as the export of wheat is to the corn grower; his prices rise, he becomes more spirited in his business, he brings more to market; consider this train from the beginning; is it possible it should have any other consequence? A century ago these things were so ill understood, that our ancestors gave a bounty on the export of corn, in order to make it dear: they never dreamed that they were taking the most effectual means to make it cheap; and yet it would doubtless have been thought a glaring paradox to assert, that taking great quantities of corn from our markets was not a way to raise the price; and for what I know, the idea I have just dropped, that in order to make beef cheaper, you must make it dearer, will even in this age be thought another paradox.' This reasoning appears to us to be conclusive, and to contain in a few words more good sense than has on these subjects filled many volumes; the following passage is, if any thing, yet more striking and original.

'I have considered an increased demand, which raises the value of a commodity to be the means of increasing the quantity of that commodity by encouraging the production of it, and I have applied it to beef, to mutton, to wheat, and to labour. I remarked that lessening the quantity in the market while the demand continued, the same operated as an encouragement; and presently supplied more than the usual quantum: it is the same with population. You fight off your men by wars, you destroy them by great cities, you lessen them by emigrations; most infallible methods of increasing their number, provided the demand does not decline. This is exactly the same thing as rendering beef scarcer by the slaughter of calves, and wheat by exportation. Take a quantity from the market certainly you add to the value of what

remains, and how can you encourage the re-production of it more powerfully than by adding to its value?

‘ Dr. Price says that for the last eighty years there has not been one great cause of depopulation which has not operated among us. What is the great encouragement of population? *Ease of acquiring income*: it is of no consequence whether that income arises from land, manufacture, or commerce; it is as powerful in the pay of a manufacturer, as in the wilds of America: what is the great obstacle to population? *Difficulty of acquiring income*. Here then we have a criterion by which to judge of the population or depopulation of any period. If you view the country and see agriculture under such circumstances that the farmers products will not pay his usual improvements, and consequently dismissing the hands he formerly kept; if the manufactures of the kingdom want a market, and the active industry exerted in them becomes languid and decays; if commerce no longer supports the seamen she was wont to do; if private and public works, instead of entering into competition for hands with the manufacturer and the farmer, stand still amidst numbers who cry in vain for work: if these effects are seen, a want of employment will stare you in the face, and that want is the only cause of depopulation that can exist. Have these spectacles been common in the eyes of our people since the Revolution? Are they common at present? Does not the great active cause Employment operate more powerfully than ever? Away then with these visionary ideas the disgrace of our enlightened age, the reproach of this great and flourishing nation.’

Many striking observations are made on the principles of population, in which the author explains its dependance on the encrease of employment; and shews that no former period could in this country be more populous than the present, because there was not an equal demand in manufactures, arts, and commerce for the surplus of the country population; a new idea which he supports with judicious arguments.

At p. 91, he explains the signs of depopulation in the following words. ‘ As ideas of depopulation have in all ages been so common, and complaints of mischiefs in the government and policy of state ever annexed to them, and generally without any reason; it may not be amiss to bestow a few reflections, on those signs of depopulation, which, whenever they appear, may be supposed to speak truth. I have said, that populousness in England depends on employment which here operates on the same principles as plenty of land in America; this offers a very simple idea of depopulation, employment lessening. Not lessening in the parish A, while increas-

ing

ing in the town B; or lessening in B while increasing in A, but a general visible declension, such as would take place if the national wealth was to decline, which generally being the effect of employment must mark the state of its cause. If the seamen lessen, and your shipping falls away, it is a circumstance which to this nation would be of the highest consequence, and mark a variety of declension, if at the same time the great manufactures of the kingdom could no longer find a vent, and consequently their people without employment, it would be a mark not less equivocal, if the cultivated soil lessens, if tracts once valuable become waste, and rents fall, it is an unerring sign of decay; if the prices of labour and commodities in general sink, it is no less to be depended on. These signs of national decay need not be multiplied whenever they are seen, they must mark in proportion to their extent the declension of our prosperity.

‘Decrease of shipping, decline of manufactures, decline of agriculture, a general fall of prices.

‘It appears to me, that these are circumstances which involve every other course of national declension; they mark a loss of wealth, a decrease of employment, which must universally bring down population with it.

‘Whenever, therefore, we hear of other causes of depopulation, such as engrossing farms, inclosures, laying arable to grass, high prices of provisions, great cities, luxury, celibacy, debauchery, wars, emigrations, &c. we may very safely resolve them into a string of vulgar errors, and rest assured, that they can have no ill effect while the five great causes mentioned above do not subsist.’

These are very bold ideas, and yet they seem as well founded in argument, and confirmed by instances, as any matter of this sort can be. Nothing can be of greater national consequence than these subjects nor any which better deserve general attention. Mr. Young has made a greater progress in investigating them thoroughly and accurately, than any other writer, and this he has done without betraying the smallest tincture of the common and almost universal prejudices entertained.

Having taken several different views of this subject, he quotes a dialogue written by Shakespeare upon the price of provisions, which shews, that the rise in the price of provisions was owing entirely to the abundance of money; after which he goes on. ‘It appears from the dialogue quoted above, that from twenty to thirty years preceding 1581, prices had risen 50 per cent. It is plain, that this had nothing to do with wheat, which continued at a tolerably steady price till

1573, and then arose for many years more than 50 per cent. The author of the dialogue writes in 1581, and in it inclosures are arraigned for converting arable into grass for sheep; but mark, that this complaint followed thirty-one years the average price of which was 8s. 3d.  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and we are told, that the labouring poor could not live whose wages were eight pence a day! Such are the preposterous and absurd complaints, which, like those of depopulation are, as Mr. Hume most justly remarks, ‘A vulgar complaint in all places and all ages.’ We have Sir W. Petty’s positive authority, that day labour was eight pence a day a century after this period; and at present it is sixteen pence on an average. But how could inclosures act against the plenty of corn, while wheat for 31 years stood at 8s. 3d.  $\frac{1}{2}$  present money? Does not this palpable contraction shew the folly of such an idea: does it not shew what we have so often remarked that any operation which has a tendency (like throwing arable to grass) to raise the price of any particular product, has in its very nature a tendency to the direct contrary effect? Throw so much arable to grass as to raise the price of corn, and you encourage the corn farmers so much, that an increase of culture immediately follows. Every very high period in the preceding table is surely followed by a low one, until wheat came to 3l. 6s. 6d., the highest price of all: what followed? Why 6s. 5d. a quarter the very next year; such an encouragement to the farmer was the former high price, that it at once produced the latter. The same remark is just in every table of prices that has been published throughout Europe; and the low price being an equal discouragement, it must at once produce an high one.

‘ Is it not evident therefore that the knight in the dialogue has reason to say that it could not be owing to inclosures that corn was dear; nor could they make cattle dear, for inclosures cause plenty of cattle. This is the very mirror of the present state of England: inclosures are condemned for raising prices: how do they raise prices? Why they raise wheat to 2l. 3s. 6d. a quarter for 7 years, and they make beef and mutton dear by infinitely increasing the number of fat sheep and oxen! When shall we see an end to these absurdities. The author of the dialogue tells us that in the 20 or 30 years preceding 1581, commodities in general had risen 50 per cent. and some more: and the short-sighted good people of those days attributed this evil to sheep, inclosures, grass, and great farms; they would not look at the right cause with Shakespeare, the increase of money: it is the nature of the vulgar, great and small in all ages, to attribute evils to such a cause as may be changed; because the malignity of man loves an

opportunity to quarrel with government. If sheep are the cause, prohibit, say they, great flocks; if horses, tax them; if great farms, divide them: such causes admit of remedies which, if not applied, give an opportunity of clamour: but attribute them to an increase and consequent cheapness of money, to public wealth, to national prosperity, the prospect is too brilliant for a jaundiced eye, that can look with pleasure only on ideal evil and chimerical declension.'

Mr. Young next enquires into the proportions between the former and present prices of meat and wheat, and endeavours to prove that meat is not at present out of proportion to the price of bread. This is a very curious part of his work, but admits not of extracts. Upon the subject of inclosures, we meet with the following conspicuous passage.

' Dr. Price and the others who assure us we should throw down our hedges, and waste one third of our farms in a barren fallow, by way of making beef and mutton cheap, will confine themselves to the inclosures which have converted arable to grass. What say they to those which have changed grass to arable? they chuse to be silent. I do not comprehend the amusement that is constantly found in looking at those objects which are supposed to be gloomy, and in regularly lamenting the evils that surround us, though they flow from causes which shower down much superior: when I look around me in this country, I think I every where see so great and animating a prospect, that the small specks which may be discerned in the hemisphere, are lost in the brilliancy that surround them. I cannot spread a curtain over the illumined scene, and leave nothing to view but the meer shades of so splendid a piece. What will these gentlemen say to the enclosures of Norfolk, Suffolk, Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, and all the Northern counties? What say they to the sands of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Nottinghamshire, which yield corn, and mutton, and beef, from the force of inclosure alone? What say they to the wolds of York and Lincoln, which from barren heaths, at 1s. per acre, are, by inclosure alone, rendered profitable farms? Ask Sir Cecil Wray, if without inclosure, he could advance his heaths by sainfoine from 1s. to 20s. an acre. What say they to the vast tracts in the Peak of Derby, which by inclosures alone are changed from black regions of ling to fertile fields covered with cattle? What say they to the improvements of moors in the northern counties, where inclosures alone have made those counties smile with culture which before were dreary as night. What have these gentlemen to say to these instances? Cannot they manage to assure us the prospect is delusive.

They

They can. Hear how they are characterized. ‘ Inclosures of waste lands and commons would be useful if divided into small allotments, and given up to be occupied at moderate rents by the poor. But if besides lessening the produce of fine wool, they bear hard on the poor, by depriving them of a part of their subsistence, and only go towards increasing farms already too large, the advantages attending them may not much exceed the disadvantages \*.’ Hence, therefore, we find, all these improvements very equivocal. Before it is allowed that converting lime to corn is beneficial, it must previously be asked if the improvement is wrought by that ghostly object of dread and terror, a great farmer: before it is acknowledged right to make that land which would not feed rabbits, produce beef and mutton, we must know whether the poor were deprived of a part of their subsistence: before you will submit to change the heaths of Lincoln to fertile fields of sanfoine, you must demand, *Were the allotments small?* I must own it is with astonishment that I thus see superior minds stooping to prejudices so unworthy of their abilities. How, in the name of common sense, were such improvements to be wrought by little, or even moderate farmers! Can such inclose wastes, at a vast expence, cover them with an hundred loads or more of marle, or 6 or 800 bushels of lime, keep sufficient flocks of sheep for folding, and conduct those (for the lower classes) mighty operations essential to new improvements? No. It is to great farmers you owe these; without great farms you never would have seen these improvements, much I suppose to the satisfaction of those who declare themselves so indiscriminately their enemies.’

The next section entitled, Consumption of Meat, is entirely new: it is designed to point out the importance of cattle in husbandry, and draws a comparison in this respect between France and England; shewing that this circumstance being so much superior in the latter, must not only give us a better agriculture, but render us proportionably more populous. In the following section, the writer makes some judicious observations on the conduct of the Society of Arts, and concludes with an anecdote of the education of the prince of Wales, in relation to agriculture.

[ To be concluded in our next. ]

\* Observ. on Rev. Payments, p. 390.

VII. A Treatise on Education. By David Williams. 8vo. 3s.  
Served. Payne.

THE proper education of youth is of the utmost importance to the welfare of society, and the happiness of every individual. It is the most efficacious means of preventing immorality and impiety, and of promoting arts and sciences, politeness and learning, liberty and religion, among mankind. The subject has therefore been discussed by innumerable writers. Several brilliant declamations, and some masterly disquisitions of a philosophical kind, have been lately offered to the public. But there is room for farther improvement.

The author of this essay, in one of his introductory chapters, makes some general remarks on the mode of education, pursued in most of our colleges and public schools.

With respect to these institutions he says, ‘ When they were established, the principal passion of the people was superstition. . . . The great object of education was to make a man superstitious. All the provisions of our colleges were established with that view.’

The truth of this reflection, in some respects, may be admitted. There was originally a mixture of superstition in our ancient seminaries of education; because they were founded in times of ignorance, when popery and school-divinity was the established religion, and the prevailing taste. But when the Reformation took place, some of the leading principles of superstition were exploded, and more manly and liberal sentiments inculcated. The minds of men have been gradually opened and enlarged by learning and philosophy. As the arts and sciences have advanced, superstition has retired. Yet, what may seem unaccountable, there are some traces of it still remaining in our universities. We do not pretend to say, that the fellow of a college resembles a monk in indolence or inutility. But, if we rightly recollect, there are certain customs retained in some of our academical societies, which resemble the ceremonies of a monasterial institution. The round cap in the university of Oxford has a mean appearance, and is a badge of servility unbecoming a gentleman in a place of liberal education. In some colleges the homage, which the undergraduates are obliged to pay to the seniors of the society, is too far extended. In the chapel, the formal bow, which is generally made by the officiating clergyman, when he approaches the communion table, has the air of a popish rite. The attention, which is given to trifling systems of logic and syllogistical disputations; and, above all, the *veneration*, which is paid to Aristotle, are proofs, that the cobwebs of the schools are not entirely swept away from the walls of our colleges.

From general remarks, our author proceeds to consider the schemes of education proposed by Milton, Locke, Rousseau, and Helvetius.

In examining the observations of Mr. Locke, he advances the following singular notion, in opposition to the sentiments of that celebrated philosopher.

‘ Mr. Locke mistakes in placing piety to God among the first virtues to be taught. I do not say this because I do not think piety the most useful and most sublime of all the moral dispositions; but because it is impossible to be taught a child. I have attended with care to attempts of this kind by persons of great capacity and skill in education, and they have always been unsuccessful and injurious.

‘ Child. Who is God, mama?

‘ Mother. It is God, my dear, who made you and me and all the world.

‘ Child. And where is he, mama?

‘ Mother. He is in heaven, my dear.

‘ Child. And where is heaven, mama?

‘ Mother. I don't know, my dear.

‘ Child. Where have you seen him?

‘ Mother. I have never seen him, but he is every where, and gives us every thing we enjoy.

‘ Child. He is very good, but I wonder we cannot see him.

The mother thus silences the child by raising its tender affections. The heart sometimes mistakes the pleasure of goodness for the satisfaction of knowledge. This is not always the consequence of the dialogue. For those parents who have acquired a turn for speculation and religious dispute, overwhelm their children with hard and unintelligible terms of God's being a spirit, spirit being immaterial, and that all things immaterial are invisible. The being and perfections of God constitute the highest and last subject of human knowledge. Young people should be led to the Deity by his works, and not learn to chatter some unintelligible and useless jargon about him. It is, of all subjects in the world, the most difficult to obtain clear ideas upon. If the greatest and best men who have dignified our nature, have not been able to obtain for themselves, or to express to others any tolerable notion of—a cause existing from eternity without effect—or an effect without a cause—or of a cause and effect co-existing: if when they have been satisfied of the being of a God, their abilities have been put to the utmost stretch to reconcile that piety which supposes him to act at pleasure, and the opinion that he acts by regular and necessary laws; that every effect hath a cause, and that all the good and evil in the world is by his appointment:—if this be true, as every man of knowledge must have seen it is—what confusion and perplexity must arise on this subject in the dialogues of a nurse or a pedagogue with the children under their care! the instructor not understanding the subject, and the scholar not having even a capacity for it. Great is the wisdom, however, which is affected on these occasions, and the child is highly commended who repeats from memory the speeches he has heard; who betrays an ill-grounded apprehension of something more terrible than his master; or pretends to love something which he says, and in some cases

may believe, to be greater and better than his father and mother.'

We readily acknowledge, that it is difficult to form a clear idea of the supreme Being. But are we therefore to infer, that it is useless and absurd to attempt to inspire the infant mind with a general notion of his existence, his providence, and his moral perfections? The sooner we apprehend, these principles are inculcated the better. And, perhaps, it is as easy to give children a competent idea of these things, as it is to give them a proper notion of good and evil, justice and injustice, or indeed of any moral or social virtue.

Our author having considered some of the most important plans of education, which have been proposed by others, and offered his objections to each of them, points out such improvements in our present methods, as he thinks are practicable, and yet important enough to require the public attention.

The two common principles, which now operate in education, are fear and emulation. The author disapproves of the former, and thinks it only a wretched expedient in some extraordinary cases. The latter, he says, is liable to many objections, producing envy, and other ungenerous passions. He is therefore of opinion, that the tutor should treat his pupils as his children, and endeavour to inspire them with a filial love, or as he calls it, an affectionate duty towards himself; and whilst he encourages them to exert their talents by hopes of praise, he should teach them to excel one another in acts of generosity, compassion, and friendship.

The knowledge of languages is usually the first objects of education; and the common way of teaching them is to have recourse to grammars. But our author objects to this method, and recommends the following scheme.

'If, says he, I had never seen a grammar, a dictionary, or received any instructions in education, and had a child to be taught a language, I have no doubt, but my method would have been to make words the names of things, and not the names of ideas: that is, instead of telling him a stone, a bull, or an eagle, was the name of a thing with such properties and qualities, I would have shewn him the thing itself, and then told him its name. It would not have signified to the child, whether I told it him in Greek, in Latin, or in English; his memory would retain the word, and his mind would have a precise and accurate idea.'

Here the reader will undoubtedly ask: How will you execute your plan? You must be continually wandering over the world with your pupils. When you have a Greek word for a cow, or for an elephant, you must go many miles, perhaps, and spend much time to shew him those two different objects. And you

you must be likewise very exact in pointing out the difference between the cow and the bull. Or if you have occasion to mention a ghost or a devil, you would find it impossible to give your pupils an ocular demonstration.

Our author is aware of these objections, which ignorant people may raise at his expence, and therefore he replies :

' It would be proper to shew in nature as many of the objects we name, as we can conveniently come at. The others may be very tolerably substituted by sculptures, drawings, cameo's, intaglio's, and all the various assistances of the arts. The contours and colours of the shells, &c. published by Knorr, have perhaps not all the precision and delicacy of the beautiful subjects he has represented. The works of Caylus, Winckelmann, and Stuart; and the bas reliefs and intaglio's, by Wedgwood and Bentley, do not render travelling and collections unnecessary to those who can afford the time and expence; but they convey much truer ideas than any verbal descriptions; and may do very well as substitutes for those originals, in nature and art, from which they are so elegantly and faithfully copied. It would be difficult to name any thing that is the object of knowledge, and furnishes a term of importance in any language, which cannot be shewn in London, either as it exists in nature, or as it is drawn and represented by some masterly artist.'

To render this method of education amusing and agreeable, the pupil, our author thinks, should be taught to draw, at the same time he is taught to write; and a great part of his business should be to copy those objects, the names and properties of which he is learning.

Here, however, it should be remembered, that this ingenious plan will not supersede the use of a grammar: for the sight of all the objects in nature will not teach a young student the structure of a sentence.

Having considered the best method of learning languages, our author proceeds to enquire what languages are the proper objects of attention. We have no sort of business, he says, with Greek and Latin, but barely to know what has been written in them; and to taste at their sources those springs of knowledge, which have been so beneficial to the world. Upon this account, however, it may be allowed, that they are very proper accomplishments in the education of a gentleman.

' But, he adds, we should take up our business at its right end, and begin with learning Greek. The propriety of this method is obvious on several accounts. There is an aversion in the mind to every thing retrograde. It dislikes moving backward from improvements to rude sketches, when the contrary process would have delighted it. It is not so pleased with the finest originals, after having contemplated copies. And there is something in the mind, awkwardly expressed in English by the *love of order*, which is pleased with having every thing before it in the manner it has taken place in nature. Greek was the learned language of the world

before Latin ; and the first elements of all the arts and of all philosophy are to be found in the pleasing compositions of that elegant language. Most of the terms of art in all professions were borrowed by the Romans from the Greek ; and from the Romans by all the nations of Europe. Why should we not therefore begin with the origin of our present knowledge ; and proceed, as it has proceeded to this day ? Our employment would be much more agreeable than the present method of walking backwards, and stealing only short glances at that point from which we ought to have started.'

Some writers have carried this point so far, as to tell us, that we ought to begin with Hebrew, as it was the source of the European languages. But if it be allowed, as it undoubtedly must, that in the study of the Belles Lettres and the sciences, we meet with ten times more writers, especially among the moderns, and a hundred times more quotations, in Latin than in Greek, the former of course becomes a language of more essential importance than the latter in a polite education.

When the young scholar has acquired a competent knowledge of Greek and Latin, the author directs him to learn French, and afterwards to make the English language, reading, speaking, eloquence, natural, civil, and ecclesiastical history, logic, ethics, mathematics, &c. the objects of his attention.

Under the article of exercises he recommends the following method of uniting instruction and amusement.

' If a young student is accompanied by his tutor, or rather his friend, his exercises and diversions will be very different from those, which generally employ our boys at school. A walk in the fields, after reading a little in natural history, may furnish opportunities of important instruction. The garden is one of the best schools of botany, and affords the most wholesome and agreeable exercise. The hills, the dales, the rocks and quarries afford matter of speculation on their formation, use, and beauty. Many of the mathematical, astronomical, and particularly the mechanical problems, may be examined, in consequence of a ride or a walk. This will not only be present instruction, but get the pupil into a habit of having an object and a view in every thing he does. He will then never experience the common unhappiness of not knowing what to do with himself ; or when he has resolved on a ride or a walk, be miserable for want of being able to determine where to go, or on what object to engage his thoughts.'

This, no doubt, would be an eligible method of conveying instruction ; yet while boys are boys, it cannot be substituted in the room of play. It may be amusement to the tutor, but it will be restraint and fatigue to his pupils, and can only be considered as an agreeable employment.

In the concluding chapter, the author endeavours to answer the objections, which are most likely to be raised against his plan of education.

To this treatise he has subjoined the history of Philo and Amelia. This piece is designed to illustrate and exemplify the foregoing scheme. For the children of this sensible and happy couple are educated in exact conformity to the author's plan.

The great point which he every where inculcates, is to follow the directions of nature; and this mode of proceeding is now generally thought the most judicious.

There is a small inaccuracy of expression, which sometimes occurs in this treatise, particularly in the following sentences.

‘ If the subject of education was thoroughly understood—If the same method was pursued,—It is to be wished, that our education was directly applied to our happiness, and that it was rendered in fact, what it was designed to be by Providence.—If every mother was to take the whole care of her child, she would require no other exercise.’

In these passages the author should have said were understood, were pursued, &c. The past time in the indicative mode is improperly used instead of the present in the subjunctive. We take the liberty to mention this mistake, as we frequently meet with it in some of our most respectable authors.

**VIII. Poems. By the Author of the Sentimental Sailor. 4to. 3s. 6d.  
boards. Dilly.**

THE first of these Poems derives its name from Arthur's Seat, a hill in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, which the author attempts to celebrate. With how much zeal he enters upon his subject, will appear from the following lines.

‘ Majestic hill! whose summit high  
Proclaims afar to stranger's eye,  
Where on her rock Edina lies,  
And sees a thousand villas rise,  
And smiling rears, with conscious pride,  
Her beauteous daughter at her side:  
Majestic hill! thy varied view  
If I could trace with pencil true;  
Nor, tow'ring o'er the Latian land,  
With proud Soracta wouldest thou stand;  
Nor, rising 'mid the Alpine throng,  
Swell Helvetian Haller's song;  
Nor wish the fertile site to fill,  
Tho' Denham's theme, of Cooper's hill.’

The subsequent quotation is liable to several objections.

‘ Scoopt in hollow gulfs below,  
How the deep-funk vallies bow!  
While, on joyous frblic bent,  
Sliding down the long descent,

Schoolboy glad, with cheerful cries,  
Swift, with arms extended, flies.'

The word *bow*, in its usual acceptation, expresses an act of courtesy, and is not synonymous with *bend*, which is the idea here meant. The expression is probably a Scotticism. There is too great a redundancy of similar epithets, accompanied with a poverty of invention, in crowding *joyous*, *glad*, and *cheerful* so close together; and we cannot conceive how the schoolboy, were he ever so well taught, could slide and fly at the same time.

The thought in the third line of the succeeding passage is too abruptly introduced.

" Mid shelving banks and mazy bowers  
See castled Roslin's falling towers ;  
No vulgar ruin—o'er the land  
How thick the crowding bow-men stand !  
And hark ! the echoing heights above  
Resound ; the Scottish standards move.  
" Shake the sword, and sound the shield,  
Now the proud oppressors yield !  
Burst the bonds, and break the yoke"—  
Thrice descends the mighty stroke !

We sometimes meet with an obscurity of expression, and even grammatical impropiety, occasioned probably by the shortness of the verse; as in the following couplet,

" I see where gather'd heap around  
Marks of Roman power the bound."

The metaphor in the subsequent couplet is too trite and vulgar to be admitted in poetry.

" How ruin'd tower and castle old,  
Take, of musing Fancy, hold !"

After pointing out these exceptionable passages, we shall lay before our readers the following, where the succession of the Seasons is described with poetical imagery.

" To usher in the smiling years,  
Nature's gentle bard appears !  
Descriptive Thompson ! on thy head  
Every Muse sweet influence shed.  
Ethereal mildness ! while the Spring  
Her cheerful robe of green shall bring ;  
And softens the relenting year ;  
And flowers with silken leaves appear ;  
And purple heath, and blossom'd field,  
Around their balmy fragrance yield ;  
And genial Nature smiles, and gay  
Salutes the rosy-footed May :  
While lofty Summer's sultry hour  
Calls for cool sequester'd bow'r ;  
And poet, negligently laid,  
Haunts crystal stream, and sylvan shade ;

And

And dashing cat'racts, foaming, fall ;  
 And thunder rolls thro' airy hall ;  
 And nimble lightnings flash ; and round  
 Start the gloomy woods profound :  
 While Autumn gilds, from regions bright,  
 The happy world with golden light ;  
 And Libra weighs, serene and clear,  
 In equal scales, the falling year ;  
 And woodlands raise their latest song ;  
 And wand'rer weeps the leaves among,  
 When dying Nature seems to call,  
 Prepare, prepare my funeral !  
 While Winter, wrapt in midnight-glooms,  
 Father of the tempest, comes ;  
 And calls his ruffian blasts, and reigns,  
 Ruthless tyrant ! o'er the plains ;  
 And roars the river down the dale,  
 Arrested oft by icy gale ;  
 And shakes the sounding world defac'd ;  
 And rushes wild th' watry waste :  
 —While rounding thus the varied year,  
 The circling seasons still appear ;  
 So long shall last thy matchless song,  
 Gentlest of the tuneful throng !

The second poem is entitled Elysium, a Dream; where the author presents us with a view of Tartarus, in the manner of the ancient poets. We shall make no objection to the introducing Christian bards into the heathen elysium, as the author has precluded us on this head; but proceed to the address to Pluto, which demands a slight remark. It begins thus :

“ Gloomy tyrant of the dead !  
 Unrelenting Pluto dread !  
 By the charms that deck'd thy queen,  
 When in fragrant Enna seen,  
 First, with youthful beauty, she,  
 Gath'ring wild flow'rs, fixed thee.  
 —Stopt thy ebon car—afraid,  
 Silent stood th' astonish'd maid ;  
 And sudden seiz'd, reluctant lay,  
 Struggling sweet, the precious prey ;  
 And rushing down the dire descent  
 Of op'ning earth, to centre rent,  
 With thee th' affrighted virgin hurl'd,  
 Trembling saw th' infernal world.”

The three lines describing the situation of Proserpine are finely alliterated, but we submit to the author, whether there is not an impropriety in styling this beautiful lady still a *virgin*, after we are told that she lay struggling with her ravisher, the mighty Pluto, who was not amenable for violation even to the tribunal of Jupiter. For this indirect impeachment of the power and superiority of the God, which madam Dacier herself

self would not have overlooked, we advise the poet to beware of ever visiting the dominions of ‘unrelenting Pluto dread.’

The last piece in this collection is an epistolary Essay on Poetry, written in heroic verse, which, though containing but little original sentiment, has at least a claim to mediocrity.

**IX. *The Female Advocate; a Poem. Occasioned by reading Mr. Duncombe's Femeinad. By Miss Scott. 4to. 2s. Johnson.***

DID no other instance exist of genius in a lady than that with which we are here presented, this production alone would afford incontestible proof that nature has not prohibited the fair from arriving at excellence in poetry. But miss Scott has asserted the intellectual endowments of the sex by such a multitude of examples as fully establish their title to the favour of the muses, and an honourable rank in polite literature. This elegant poem commences with the following lines.

‘ Now, big with storms, rough winter issues forth  
From the cold bosom of his parent North ;  
Now, scarce a flow'ret rears its beauteous head  
Above the surface of its native bed ;  
Stripp'd of its foliage, the late verdant grove,  
No more invites my devious feet to rove :  
How shall I soothe the anguish of a heart,  
Yet bleeding from affliction's poignant dart ?  
A heart that long, alas, hath ceas'd to glow,  
Dead to each hope of happiness below !  
Propitious come, ye fair Aonian maids,  
And guide a wanderer to your hallow'd shades ;  
O, wrap me in your solitary cells  
Where Silence reigns, and Inspiration dwells !  
For once this tasteless apathy controul,  
And wake each sprightly passion of my soul.

‘ But say what theme shall sportive Fancy chuse,  
Since Nature's charms no more delight the muse ?  
What theme ! and can it then a doubt remain  
What theme demands the tributary strain,  
Whilst lordly man asserts his right divine,  
Alone to bow at Wisdom's sacred shrine ;  
With tyrant sway would keep the female mind  
In error's cheerless dark abyss confin'd ?  
Tell what bright daughters Britain once could boast ?  
What daughters now adorn her happy coast ?

Our readers, we doubt not, will receive pleasure from the subsequent quotation, which is extracted as a specimen of the fair author's panegyrical talents.

‘ To Oxford next the muse transported turns,  
Where Jones with all a poet's ardour burns ;  
Jones, in whose strains another Pope we view,  
Her wit so keen, her sentiments so true.

Like him the charming maid, with skill refin'd,  
Hath pierc'd the deep recesses of the mind ;  
The latent principles of action trac'd,  
And truth with art's enchanting beauties grac'd.

‘ Ingenious Masters, well thy tuneful lays  
May claim the tribute of the muse's praise ;  
Whose soaring mind a parent's frown depress'd,  
A mind with virtue, and with genius bless'd !  
And yet, how sweetly-soothing in thy strains,  
The royal bard of Palæstine complains !  
Well too thou paint'st those envious critics pride  
Who, fond to cavil, merit's charms would hide;  
Superior to the labour'd songs of art  
The verse that flows spontaneous from the heart !  
But yet more sweet, more finish'd far the line,  
Where art, and nature, in fair union shine.

‘ Thou who did'st pierce the shades of Gothic night,  
And bring the first faint dawn of wit to light ;  
Who did'st the rude essays of genius save,  
From dark oblivion's all-devouring grave ;  
To thee, fair patron of the Muses songs,  
To thee each grateful poet's praise belongs ;  
Praise, the sole boon a poet can bestow,  
And the sole meed his arduous labours know.  
Precarious meed ! for oft alas, the bard  
Finds envy rob him of that sweet reward :  
Her baneful touch his laurels soon destroys,  
And blasts the harvest of his promis'd joys.

‘ O, then, ye favor'd few ! whom wit inspires,  
Whom taste refines, or thirst of glory fires,  
To nobler objects turn the dazzled eye,  
Than honour, fame, or fortune can supply :  
For sure alone in virtue can ye find,  
Enjoyments suited to th' immortal mind,  
With ardour then her sacred paths pursue ;  
There still new pleasures strike the raptur'd view :  
Give to ambition there its utmost scope :  
Thus shall your bliss surpass your brightest hope.

‘ Twas Fielding's talent, with ingenuous Art,  
To trace the secret mazes of the heart,  
In language tun'd to please its infant thought,  
The tender breast with prudent care she taught.  
Nature to her, her boldest pencil lent,  
And blest her with a mind of vast extent ;  
A mind, that nobly scorn'd each low desire,  
And glow'd with pure religion's warmest fire.

‘ High in the records of immortal fame  
Stands, charming Tollet ! thy illustrious name :  
Thee science led to her sequester'd bow'rs,  
And deck'd thy mind with all her fairest flow'rs :  
The charms of verse, of rapt'rous sounds, are thine,  
The pencil's magic, and the lore divine.  
O Lenox, thou “ in various nature wise ! ”  
Proceed to paint our follies as they rise ;  
Bid the coquette in blushes hide her face,  
Which affectation robs of every grace ;

Bid virtue, to her generous purpose true,  
Prest on, and keep perfection still in view.  
Thus may success thy great designs attend,  
And fame, and fortune, smile on virtue's friend!

We cannot avoid remarking, as a circumstance greatly to the honour of Miss Scott, that she celebrates the praises of the most eminent even of her cotemporary female writers with a degree of warmth and generosity that is seldom discovered among rival candidates for fame. We may add, that, though her panegyric includes so many respectable names, she never offends us with a repetition of the same compliment, but her address is equally various, elegant, and poetical.

X. *An History of the Earth, and animated Nature.* By Oliver Goldsmith. In Eight Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. boards. Nourse.  
[Continued.]

AFTER delivering an account of the internal structure of the earth, the author proceeds to the caves and subterraneous passages. Many of these, he observes, are not the production of nature, but of human industry; such as the famous labyrinth of Candia, and the stone-quarry of Maestricht; the latter of which is so large that forty thousand people may be contained in it. Among the artificial caverns, are likewise to be ranked the catacombs in Egypt and Italy. Few countries, if any, are destitute of natural caverns. In England those of Oakey-hole, the Devil's hole, and Penpark-hole, are the most conspicuous; but the grotto of Antiparos, a small island in the Archipelago, is admitted to be the most extraordinary production yet discovered of this kind, both for beauty and extent. Dr. Goldsmith has translated the account delivered of it by Magni, an Italian traveller, about an hundred years ago, in a letter to Kircher, which we extract for the amusement of our readers.

" Having been informed, says he, by the natives of Paros, that in the little island of Antiparos, which lies about two miles from the former, of a gigantic statue that was to be seen at the mouth of a cavern in that place, it was resolved that we (the French consul and himself) should pay it a visit. In pursuance of this resolution, after we had landed on the island, and walked about four miles through the midst of beautiful plains, and sloping woodlands, we at length came to a little hill, on the side of which yawned a most horrid cavern, that with its gloom at first struck us with terror, and almost represt curiosity. Recovering the first surprise, however, we entered boldly; and had not proceeded above twenty paces, when the supposed statue of the giant presented itself to our view. We quickly perceived, that what the ignorant natives had been terrified at as a giant, was nothing more than a sparry concretion, formed by the water dropping from the roof of the

the cave, and by degrees hardening into a figure that their fears had formed into a monster. Incited by this extraordinary appearance, we were induced to proceed still farther, in quest of new adventures in this subterranean abode. As we proceeded, new wonders offered themselves; the spars, formed into trees and shrubs, presented a kind of petrified grove; some white, some green; and all receding in due perspective. They struck us with the more amazement, as we knew them to be mere productions of Nature, who, hitherto in solitude, had, in her playful moments, dressed the scene, as if for her own amusement.

" But we had as yet seen but a few of the wonders of the place; and we were introduced as yet only into the portico of this amazing temple. In one corner of this half illuminated recess, there appeared an opening of about three feet wide, which seemed to lead to a place totally dark, and that one of the natives assured us contained nothing more than a reservoir of water. Upon this we tried, by throwing down some stones, which rumbling along the sides of the descent for some time, the sound seemed at last quashed in a bed of water. In order, however, to be more certain, we sent in a Levantine mariner, who, by the promise of a good reward, with a flambeaux in his hand, ventured into this narrow aperture. After continuing within it for about a quarter of an hour, he returned, carrying some beautiful pieces of white spar in his hand, which art could neither imitate nor equal. Upon being informed by him that the place was full of these beautiful incrustations, I ventured in once more with him, for about fifty paces, anxiously and cautiously descending by a steep and dangerous way. Finding, however, that we came to a precipice which led into a spacious amphitheatre, if I may so call it, still deeper than any other part, we returned, and being provided with a ladder, flambeaux, and other things to expedite our descent, our whole company, man by man, ventured into the same opening, and descending one after another, we at last saw ourselves all together in the most magnificent part of the cavern.

" Our candles being now all lighted up, and the whole place completely illuminated, never could the eye be presented with a more glittering, or a more magnificent scene. The roof all hung with solid icicles, transparent as glass, yet solid as marble. The eye could scarce reach the lofty and noble cieling; the sides were regularly formed with spars; and the whole presented the idea of a magnificent theatre, illuminated with an immense profusion of lights. The floor consisted of solid marble; and in several places, magnificent columns, thrones, altars, and other objects appeared, as if nature had designed to mock the curiosities of art. Our voices, upon speaking or singing, were redoubled to an astonishing loudness; and upon the firing of a gun, the noise and reverberations were almost deafening. In the midst of this grand amphitheatre rose a concretion of about fifteen feet high, that, in some measure, resembled an altar; from which, taking the hint, we caused mass to be celebrated there. The beautiful columns that shot up round the altar, appeared like candlesticks; and many other natural objects represented the customary ornaments of this sacrament.

" Below even this spacious grotto, there seemed another cavern; down which I ventured with my former mariner, and descended about fifty paces by means of a rope. I at last arrived at a small spot of level ground, where the bottom appeared different from

that

that of the amphitheatre, being composed of soft clay, yielding to the pressure, and in which I thrust a stick to about six feet deep. In this, however, as above, numbers of the most beautiful chrysalts were formed; one of which, particularly, resembled a table. Upon our egress from this amazing cavern, we perceived a Greek inscription upon a rock at the mouth, but so obliterated by time, that we could not read it. It seemed to import that one Antipater, in the time of Alexander, had come thither; but whether he penetrated into the depths of the cavern, he does not think fit to inform us."

By what means those immense caverns have been formed, is a subject of disquisition to the writer of natural history. The author, therefore, adopts the opinion that this effect has been produced by waters, which finding subterraneous passages, and gradually hollowing the beds in which they flowed, the ground immediately above them has sunk down closer to their surface, leaving the upper strata still suspended.

The next chapter treats of mines, damps, and mineral vapours. Here the author observes, that upon our descent into mines of considerable depth, the cold seems to increase for some time; till having descended further, the air becomes gradually warmer, so that at last the labourers can scarce bear any covering while they work. This phenomenon, the historian observes, was supposed by Boyle to proceed from magazines of fire lying nearer the centre of the earth, and diffusing their heat around them.

Our author afterwards delivers a distinct account of the several species of vapours that are found in mines; to the qualities of which he imputes in a great measure the salubrity or unwholesomeness of different climates and soils. As an instance of noxious exhalations being confined to a spot, we are presented with an account of the famous grotto del Cane, near Naples, the effects of which are thus related.

"This grotto, which has so much employed the attention of travellers, lies within four miles of Naples, and is situated near a large lake of clear and wholesome water. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the landscape which this lake affords; being surrounded with hills covered with forests of the most beautiful verdure, and the whole bearing a kind of amphitheatrical appearance. However, this region, beautiful as it appears, is almost entirely uninhabited; the few peasants that necessity compels to reside there, looking quite consumptive and ghastly, from the poisonous exhalations that rise from the earth. The famous grotto lies on the side of an hill, near which place a peasant resides, who keeps a number of dogs for the purpose of shewing the experiment to the curious. These poor animals always seem perfectly sensible of the approach of a stranger, and endeavour to get out of the way. However, their attempts being perceived, they are taken and brought to the grotto; the noxious effects of which they have so frequently experienced. Upon entering this place, which is a little cave, or hole rather, dug into the hill, about eight feet high and

and twelve feet long, the observer can see no visible marks of its pestilential vapour; only to about a foot from the bottom, the wall seems to be tinged with a colour resembling that which is given by stagnant waters. When the dog, this poor philosophical martyr, as some have called him, is held above this mark, he does not seem to feel the smallest inconvenience; but when his head is thrust down lower, he struggles to get free for a little; but in the space of four or five minutes he seems to lose all sensation, and is taken out seemingly without life. Being plunged in the neighbouring lake, he quickly recovers, and is permitted to run home without the smallest injury.

'This vapour, which thus for a time suffocates, is of the humid kind, as it extinguishes a torch, and dullies a looking glass; but there are other vapours perfectly inflammable, and that only require the approach of a candle to set them blazing. Of this kind was the burning well at Brofely, which is now stopped up; the vapour of which, when a candle was brought within about a foot of the surface of the water, caught flame like spirits of wine, and continued blazing for several hours after. Of this kind, also, are the perpetual fires in the kingdom of Persia. In that province, where the worshippers of fire hold their chief mysteries, the whole surface of the earth, for some extent, seems impregnated with inflammable vapours. A reed stuck into the ground continues to burn like a flambeaux; an hole made beneath the surface of the earth, instantly becomes a furnace answering all the purposes of a culinary fire. There they make lime by merely burying the stones in the earth, and watch with veneration the appearances of a flame that has not been extinguished for times immemorial. How different are men in various climates! This deluded people worship these vapours as a deity, which in other parts of the world are considered as one of the greatest evils.'

The ninth chapter comprises the subject of volcanoes, or burning mountains. There is no quarter of the world where some of these perpetual conflagrations are not to be found. In Europe, Ætna, Vesuvius, and Hecla, are universally well known. In Asia, particularly in the islands of the Indian ocean, volcanoes are more numerous. The most famous on the continent is that of Albouras, near mount Taurus. In the island of Ternato, there is a volcano, which is said to burn most furiously at the equinoxes, on account of the winds which then agitate the flames. In Africa, there is a burning cavern near Fez, with the volcanoes of the island del Fuogo, and the Peak of Teneriffe. In America, however, these tremendous scenes are most frequent and remarkable. Vesuvius and Ætna itself, we are told, are but mere fire-works, when compared to the burning mountains of the Andes. Arequipa, Carassa, and Malahallo are each of great consideration; but that of Cotopaxi, in the province of Quito, is described as superlatively wonderful. This mountain is said to be more than three miles of perpendicular height from the sea, and became a volcano at the time when the Spaniards first arrived in that country.

The

The author of this work dissents, with good reason, from the opinion of M. Buffon, who imagines that a volcano extends only a very little way below the base of the mountain.

‘ We can never suppose, says the great naturalist last mentioned, that these substances are ejected from any great distance below, if we only consider the great force already required to sling them up to such vast heights above the mouth of the mountain ; if we consider the substances thrown up, which we shall find upon inspection to be the same with those of the mountain below ; if we take into our consideration, that air is always necessary to keep up the flame ; but, most of all, if we attend to one circumstance, which is, that if these substances were exploded from a vast depth below, the same force required to shoot them up so high, would act against the sides of the volcano, and tear the whole mountain in pieces. To all this specious reasoning, particular answers might easily be given ; as that the length of the funnel increases the force of the explosion ; that the sides of the funnel are actually often burst with the great violence of the flame ; that air may be supposed at depths at least as far as the perpendicular fissures descend. But the best answer is a well-known fact ; namely, that the quantity of matter discharged from Ætna alone, is supposed, upon a moderate computation, to exceed twenty times the original bulk of the mountain. The greatest part of Sicily seems covered with its eruptions. The inhabitants of Catanea have found, at the distance of several miles, streets and houses, sixty feet deep, overwhelmed by the lava or matter it has discharged. But what is still more remarkable, the walls of these very houses have been built of materials evidently thrown up by the mountain. The inference from all this is very obvious ; that the matter thus exploded cannot belong to the mountain itself ; otherwise, it would have been quickly consumed ; it cannot be derived from moderate depths, since its amazing quantity evinces, that all the places near the bottom must have long since been exhausted ; nor can it have an extensive, and, if I may so call it, a superficial spread, for then the country round would be quickly undermined ; it must, therefore, be supplied from the deeper regions of the earth ; those undiscovered tracts where the Deity performs his wonders in solitude, satisfied with self-approbation !’

From treating of volcanoes, the author proceeds, by a natural transition, to consider the phenomenon of earthquakes, which are so much of the same nature with the former, that they both seem to originate from one common cause ; there being no other perceptible difference between them but that the rage of the volcano is spent in the eruption, while that of the earthquake, by being confined, produces more violent convulsions. He justly rejects the distinctions which philosophers have made of earthquakes into the tremulous, the pulsative, the perpendicular, and the inclined kind ; observing, that these are mere accidental differences arising either from the situation of the country that is agitated, or the cause of the concussion. He no less philosophically disapproves of the distinction introduced by M. Buffon, who supposes

poses one species of earthquake to be occasioned by fire, and another by the expansion of confined air.

' For how, says our author, do these two causes differ? Fire is an agent of no power whatsoever without air. It is the air, which being at first comprest, and then dilated in a cannon, that drives the ball with such force. It is the air struggling for vent in a volcano, that throws up its contents to such vast heights. In short, it is the air confined in the bowels of the earth, and acquiring elasticity by heat, that produces all those appearances which are generally ascribed to the operation of fire. When, therefore, we are told that there are two causes of earthquakes, we only learn, that a greater or smaller quantity of heat produces those terrible effects; for air is the only active operator in either.'

In the eleventh chapter our attention is fixed on the appearance of new islands, and tracts of land, and the disappearing of others. These extraordinary phenomena are the consequence of the great operations of nature which have afforded subject for the two preceding divisions of the work. New islands, our author observes, are formed in two ways; either suddenly by the action of subterraneous fires, or more slowly, by the deposition of mud, carried down by rivers, and stopped by some accident; of both which kinds, as also of the disappearing of land, he produces several instances.

In the subsequent chapter, the author proceeds to take a view of the mountains, those immense piles of nature's erecting, as he styles them, that seem to mock the minuteness of human magnificence. He observes, that in flat countries, the smallest elevation is regarded as a remarkable eminence; and that in Holland, they shew a little ridge of hills, near the sea side, which Boerhaave was used to point out to his pupils as being mountains of no small consideration. Though such an anecdote may seem very extraordinary to an English reader, the historian remarks, that even in this country we have no adequate ideas of a mountain-prospect; our hills being generally of easy ascent, and covered to the top with verdure.

Various are the conjectures which have been formed by philosophers, respecting the origin and use of mountains. Some suppose them to have been formed at the time of the deluge; others imagine, that they existed from the creation; while a different class of enquirers maintain they were produced by earthquakes; and a fourth ascribes them entirely to the fluctuations of the deep, with which they suppose in the beginning the whole globe was surrounded. Our author confesses his surprise to find the question agitated among philosophers, who might with equal reason have enquired concerning the final cause of plains.

'The most rational answer, therefore, says he, why either mountains or plains were formed, seems to be, that they were thus fashioned by the hand of Wisdom, in order that pain and pleasure should be so contiguous as that morality might be exercised either in bearing the one, or communicating the other.'

The historian observes that, whatever may be the cause, the greatest and highest mountains are found under the equator; whereas towards the poles, though the earth be craggy and uneven, the height of the mountains is very inconsiderable. Among the most remarkable mountains mentioned by the author, a particular description of the Andes, which he has translated from Ulloa, conveys a lively idea of those wonderful objects of nature; but which our limits will not afford room for inserting.

The succeeding chapter contains an account of the element of water, where we are presented with the various observations and opinions of philosophers respecting this fluid. Water, the author remarks, is proved by many experiments to be the most penetrating body, next to fire, and the most difficult to be confined. It enters into the composition of all bodies, vegetable, animal, and fossil; and was imagined by Thales, and other ancient philosophers, to be the substance of which the universe is made. It would swell this article to too great a length were we to give a particular account of the curious experiments that have been made for elucidating the nature of this fluid; for which reason we shall refer our readers to the work itself, where the author has omitted no fact that is interesting to an inquisitive mind, and has been ascertained by those who have most attentively enquired into the properties of this part of nature.

The subject next treated is, Of the Origin of Rivers, a point which has been variously agitated in the philosophical world. Our author classes the several champions in this controversy under two leaders, M. de la Hire, and Dr. Halley; the former of whom contends that rivers must be supplied from the sea, and the latter from the clouds alone. It is sufficient to observe of this dispute, that the arguments advanced, and the mathematical demonstrations produced, in support of either hypothesis leave the subject still undetermined. In this department, the author gives a description of the four quarters of the globe, their rise and course; after which he mentions the several remarkable cataracts which are found in those rivers. His description of that of Niagara, in the river St. Laurence, in Canada, which is admitted to be the most astonishing and magnificent of any thing of the kind that is known

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known in the whole compass of nature, we shall insert for the gratification of our readers.

‘ This amazing fall of water is made by the river St. Lawrence, in its passage from the lake Erie into the lake Ontario. We have already said that St. Lawrence was one of the largest rivers in the world; and yet the whole of its waters are here poured down, by a fall of an hundred and fifty feet perpendicular. It is not easy to bring the imagination to correspond with the greatness of the scene; a river, extremely deep and rapid, and that serves to drain the waters of almost all North America into the Atlantic ocean, is here poured precipitately down a ledge of rocks, that rise, like a wall, across the whole bed of its stream. The width of the river, a little above, is near three quarters of a mile broad; and the rocks, where it grows narrower, are four hundred yards over. Their direction is not straight across, but hollowing inwards like an horse-shoe; so that the cataract, which bends to the shape of the obstacle, rounding inwards, presents a kind of theatre the most tremendous in nature. Just in the middle of this circular wall of waters, a little island, that has braved the fury of the current, presents one of its points, and divides the stream at top into two; but it unites again long before it has got to the bottom. The noise of the fall is heard at several leagues distance; and the fury of the waters at the bottom of their fall, is inconceivable. The dashing produces a mist that rises to the very clouds; and that produces a most beautiful rainbow, when the sun shines. It may easily be conceived, that such a cataract quite destroys the navigation of the stream; and yet some Indian canoes, as it is said, have been known to venture down it with safety.’

The historian afterwards treats at large of the ocean in general, and of its saltiness; of the tides, motion, and currents of the sea, with their effects; and of the changes produced by the sea upon the earth. On these several subjects he presents us with the opinions of the most approved philosophers, to which he adds many judicious observations. He proceeds in the same manner through the remaining part of the first volume, which contains, A summary account of the mechanical properties of air; an ingenious essay towards a natural history of the air; the theory of winds, irregular and regular; with that of meteors, and such appearances as result from a combination of the elements. To the whole is subjoined a pertinent, beautiful, and sentimental Conclusion.

So far as we have already advanced in the examination of this work, we may safely pronounce it to be the most copious and entertaining system of natural history, that has hitherto been published in the English language.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

**XI.** *Lettre de M. de la Condamine sur le fort des Astronomes qui ont eu part aux dernières Mesures de la Terre, depuis 1735. Avec une Lettre de M. Godin des Odonais, sur l'Avanture tragique de Mad. Godin, dans son Voyage de la Province de Quito, à Cayenne, par le Fleuve des Amazones. 8vo. Paris.*

WHEN this interesting account was written, there were of all the astronomers and other gentlemen who had been employed in the mensuration of the earth, no more than three surviving, Mr. de la Condamine himself, Mr. Verguin, in France, and don Antonio Ulloa in Spain; all the others having perished by diseases, accidents, or disasters.

Yet of them all, there was none who underwent such a variety of dreadful distresses as the lady, whose tragical adventures are mentioned in the title-page of this performance. Mr. Godin des Odonais, her husband, had accompanied Mr de la Condamine, and is after thirty-eight years absence lately returned to France. Madam Godin left Peru on the 1st of October, 1769, and in order to embark on the river of the Amazons, proceeded to a village called Canelos, situated on the small river of Bobonaca, that falls into the river Paftaça, which runs into that of the Amazons. The village of Canelos had lately been depopulated by the small-pox, and had but two Indians left, who had no canoe. They agreed to make one for Mad. Godin and her company, and to carry them down to the mission of Andoas, distant about twelve days journey from Canelos. The Indians were paid beforehand; they built the canoe, navigated it for two days, and on the morning of the third, disappeared. However, the unfortunate troop reimbarked, and, though deserted by their guides and rowers, proceeded the first day without any accident. The next day at noon they met with a small canoe, and an Indian recovering from a sickness, who agreed to act as their helmsman; but on the third day, a hat of one of the company happening to fall overboard, the poor Indian, attempting to recover it, was drowned.

Thus destitute of both a helm and a helmsman, and worked by unskilled people, the canoe soon filled with water. The company were obliged to land and erect a wigwam, about five or six days journey from Andoas; whither one Mr. la Roche proceeded with two of the company, after having promised them to send, within fifteen days, a canoe with Indians to their assistance.

After having waited twenty-five days, to no purpose, for the performance of his promise, the remaining company constructed a raft, on which they embarked, with part of their goods, and some provisions. This raft, encountering some stump or tree, which lay under water, was overset with the company, all the goods were lost, and Mad. Godin after having sunk twice, was saved by her brothers, favoured by the narrowness of the stream. They now determined upon coasting the banks of the Bobonaca, though the woods on its banks are rendered almost impassable by brambles, shrubs, and underwood, through which they could not force their way but with intolerable fatigue and great loss of time; accordingly they

They returned to their wigwam, took what provisions they had left behind, and proceeded on their journey.

In coasting the banks of the river they found their journey lengthened by its windings, and therefore entered the woods, where, in a few days, they lost their way. Fatigued at length with wandering, wounded and almost disabled by thorns and briars, destitute of food, parched with thirst, finding no other support than a few vegetables and wild fruits; exhausted by sufferings, anxieties, and lassitudes; their spirits sink; their strength fails them; they lie down to rise no more, and within three or four days they all successively expire, except Mad. Godin, who having lain for two days among the dead bodies of her brothers and the rest of the company, lightheaded, and tormented by a burning thirst, at length recovers some senses and spirits; and being destitute of shoes and stockings, and almost naked, cuts her brother's shoes, ties their soles to her feet, and then drags along in search of water. Thus from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 30<sup>th</sup> of December 1769, out of a most unfortunate troop of eight persons, seven perished in the woods of Canelos. The sole surviving victim appears, from her own account, to have alone supported life for not less than ten days; viz. two days by the sides of her dead brothers, in hourly expectation of her own fate, and eight days straying, bewildered, and starving alone in the woods, before she reached the banks of the river. From the gloom of so many nights, and the horrors of utter solitude in such a desert; from the prospect of death incessantly before her eyes, and which every instant and object redoubled in her mind, her hair turned white.—On the second day she found water, and on the next some wild fruits, and green eggs of a kind of partridges, which, from having for so long a time been destitute of food, she was scarce able to swallow; this scanty supply, however, proved sufficient to support her alive.

On the eighth or ninth day after her departure from the scene of death, she found herself once more on the banks of the river. At day break she heard a rustling noise proceeding from a distance of about two hundred paces. Fear at first made her start back into the woods, but soon she reflected that nothing worse than her actual state could possibly befall her, and that she had nothing left to fear. She therefore regains the banks, and beholds two Indians launching a canoe. These Indians had a long time since retired with their families from Canelos, in order to escape the contagion of the small-pox, and were then descending to Andoas. They also perceived Mad. Godin at the same time, and went to her. She beseeched them to transport her to that place: nature and humanity pleaded in her behalf; the Indians received her with kindness and compassion, and carried her to Andoas, where she found at length the relief and assistance necessary to her recovery from a horrid situation, that cannot but have influenced her health and temper for the remainder of her life. She is now safely returned to her own family, and lives at St. Amand, in the province of Berry in France.

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

32. *Dialogues Moraux d'un Petit-Maitre Philosophe & d'une Femme raisonnable.* 12mo. Paris.

THREE dialogues between a petit-maitre and esprit fort and a lady of sense ; designed for the defence of religion and common sense, against the attacks of Infidels.

33. *Bibliothèque Grammaticale Abrégée, ou nouveaux Mémoires sur la Parole & sur l'Écriture, contenant, 1. Une Théorie des Grammaires particulières & de la Grammaire Générale, d'après un seul principe ; 2. Les premiers élémens de la Philologie, déduits de la Grammaire : 3. Des Observations sur la Langue Philosophique et différentes vues pour y parvenir : 4. L'Art de suppléer à la Langue Philosophique, avec quelques Stratagèmes par le moyen desquels on peut se servir de toutes les Langues Etrangères, Anciennes et Modernes, sans se donner la peine de les apprendre ; 5. une Méthode pour apprendre avec Facilité & Machinalment toutes Sortes de Langues : 6. Un précis de Philosophie Grammaticale : 7. Un Essai sur la Logomancie ou l'Art de Connaitre les Hommes par leurs Discours, & les Nations par leurs Idiomes : 8. Des Conjectures sur la Prosodie.* Par M. Changœux. 8vo. Paris.

The title of this work conveys a full and adequate idea of its contents, its merits, and the character of its author ; who seems to be a speculative, fertile, and very sanguine projector. But though most of his schemes appear impracticable or useless, and rather calculated for amusement than instruction, there are some views interspersed that might possibly be improved, and make this volume worth a perusal.

34. *Minéralogie, ou nouvelle Exposition du Régne Minéral ; Ouvrage dans lequel on a tâché de ranger dans l'Ordre le plus naturel les Substances de ce regno, & où l'on expose leurs Propriétés & Usages Mécaniques, &c. avec un Lexicon ou Vocabulaire, des Tables Synoptiques, & un Dictionnaire Minéralogico-Géographique.* Par M. Valmont de Bomare, Démonstrateur d'Histoire Naturelle avoué du Gouvernement, &c. 2d. edit. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.

Mr. Bomare has enriched this new edition of his valuable work with many improvements.

35. *Les Sages du Siècle, ou la Raison en délire.* 3 vols. 12mo. Paris. A moral narrative, containing little novelty.

36. *Cours de Philosophie. Éléments de Métaphysique, ou Préservatif contre le Matérialisme, l'Athéisme, & le Déisme.* Ouvrage dans lequel on a tâché de présenter de la Manière la plus claire tout ce qu'on sait touchant la Spiritualité, l'Immortalité, la Liberté de l'Ame, l'Influence de l'Ame sur le Corps, & du Corps sur l'Ame, &c. On y démontre, l'Existence de la Loi Naturelle, & la Divinité de la Religion Chrétienne, & l'on y répond de la Manière la plus solide aux Objections des plus fameux Déistes. Par M. l'Abbé Sauri, Ancien Professeur de Philosophie en l'Université de Montpellier. 2 vols. 12mo. Paris.

This course of lectures on philosophy is chiefly intended against Materialists, Atheists, and Deists. It comprises the most solid arguments that have been hitherto used against them ; with many original observations, and strong reasonings.

17. *Historiettes, ou Nouvelles en Vers.* Par M. Imbert. 2d. edit.

A variety of short and amusing tales; their subjects are trite, but the versification smooth and easy.

18. *Banise et Balacin, ou la Constance récompensée, Histoire Indienne en quatre Parties.* 4 vols. 12mo. Paris.

Translated from a German original, that has been neglected or despised for these forty years in its native country.

19. *Héroïdes, ou Lettres en vers.* Par M. Blin de Sainmore. Quatrième Edition, révue, corrigée, & augmentée. 8vo. Paris.

Of the merits of this elegant collection we have already taken notice. This fourth edition has been very considerably improved.

20. *Histoire Générale d'Italie, depuis la Décadence de l'Empire Romain jusqu'au tems présent ; dédiée à monsgr. le Comte d'Artois.* Par M. Targe. 2 vols. 12mo. Paris.

Mr. Targe's work is intended for a continuation of Mr. le Beau's "Histoire du Bas Empire," and written in the same taste. These two first volumes comprise the first eight books, from 476, to 551. The introduction prefixed to the first volume, displays the author's motives and designs; with a sketch of the seventeen provinces into which Italy was divided at the time where he takes up its history.

21. *A French Biography.* Published by John George Meusel, Prof. of History at Erfurt. vols. 1. 8vo. Halle. (German.)

Most of the French personages exhibited in this volume, deserve the notice of other nations. The account of their lives, has been collected from Mr. d'Aubigny's "Vies des Hommes Illustres de la France," and from the "Histoire de l'Academie des Inscriptions & des Belles Lettres."

22. *Pharmacopoeia Helvetica, &c. Scitu & Consensu Colleg. Med. Basileensis digesta, Prefatus est Alb. de Haller.* Folio. Basileæ.

A dispensatory extended to an immoderate length: for which, however, baron Haller's preface in three sheets has made some atonement.

23. *Ge. Frid. Mulleri variis Generis Carmina Latina. Denuo excusa cum additamentis.* 8vo. Annabergæ.

Consisting of some pretty poetical descriptions, but chiefly of a variety of occasional lyric poems, where the poet on his mettlesome and unruly steed sometimes flies away from every notion of propriety and common sense: for instance,

‘ Non cruentatas stimulante Marte  
Dicimus turmas; valeant tumultus  
Martis audaces, aliique vates  
Prælia dicant.  
‘ Hauriat nostras proculusque Thule,  
Hauriat cantus, Dolopumque gentes  
Audiant, et qui prope sábulosum.  
Potat Araxen.

Most certainly this is an "Os magna sonaturum." Yet should any reader beyond the Ganges or the river of Canton desire to know "Quem virum aut heroa," our poet is celebrating in that pompous strain; it is a reverend Dr. Gensel, rector of a certain small diocese at Annaberg, in Saxony, whose preferment has recalled the golden age; since

‘ Quo die primum Tibi contigerunt  
Fræna Sudetum moderanda Cleri,  
Et Tibi noster simulatur ordo,  
Optime Præsul ;  
Jam Salus et Pax, et euntis ævi  
Faustitas læto volat alma curru, et  
Montium tractus segetemque plenis  
Ditat ariftis.’

**24 PROGRAMMA of the Low Dutch Literary Society at Leyden.**

The Society of Low-Dutch Literature, at Leyden, having fixed a yearly reward, consisting of a Gold Medal of an hundred and fifty gilders value, to the author of the best Dissertation on any subject they think proper to propose, have in their yearly meeting, held on the 12th of July, 1774, resolved to put the following question as the subject for the year 1775.

“ In how far can be shewn, from the remains of the Mæso-Gothic and Anglo-Saxon languages, to clear up the antiquity of the Low-Dutch, that the foundation of our language is to be found in those above-mentioned ? ”

As the Society have in their lately published second volume inserted the rules to be observed by those who aspire to the Medal, (to the particular articles of which they refer) they think it only necessary now to mention that the dissertations on this subject must be fairly written in Low-Dutch or Latin, and signed with a motto, and, when inclosed, directed to the present secretary of the Society, Dr. Adrianus van Assendelft; or to the keeper of the correspondence, Pieter Vreede, junior, before the 1st of November 1775, with an additional sealed up paper, in which the name, title, and place of abode of the author is mentioned, superscribed with the same motto with which the dissertation is signed, as is customary with other societies.

**MONTHLY CATALOGUE.**

**P O L I T I C A L.**

**25. An Address to Protestant Dissenters of all Denominations, on the approaching Election of Members of Parliament, with Respect to the State of Public Liberty in General, and of American Affairs in particular.** 8vo. 2d. Johnson.

**T**HIS address is divided into two parts, in the first of which the Dissenters are warmly urged to choose for their representatives, at the ensuing election, such men as are firmly attached to the civil and religious liberties of their country. For this purpose they are reminded of the strenuous opposition made by their ancestors to the encroachments of arbitrary power; they are taught to consider those men as determined enemies to the religion of Dissenters, who obstructed the success of the late application to parliament from that body; and they are earnestly exhorted to the most powerful exertion of their influence at this crisis, if they would preserve themselves from soon becoming victims on the altar of civil tyranny.

Such

Such are the arguments in the first part of this address. In the second, the author endeavours to establish the incompetency of the British parliament for taxing America; and admonishes the Dissenters to choose such persons to represent them as will also assert the independency of our colonies in that important article of government.

The whole of the Address is animated, and breathes a generous spirit of public liberty; but, that it may operate more strongly on the minds of those for whom it is written, the author is at pains to excite such ominous apprehensions respecting our civil and religious privileges, as we hope the genius of Britain will long prevent from being verified. The necessities of the times, in our opinion, call not for the particular interposition either of the non-conformists or prelatic part of the nation. The choice of proper men for representatives is the common cause of all; and while we maintain unanimity in the preservation of our civil rights, we have nothing now to dread from the intolerant views of religious prejudices.

26. *A Letter to Sir William Meredith, Bart. in Answer to his late Letter to the Earl of Chatham.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearnly.

Political subjects of importance admit of so much controversy, and are generally so warmly treated with verbal, as well as argumentative opposition, that they ought to be investigated with the greatest coolness and impartiality. Were the affairs of Canada discussed purely on these principles, it is probable that the consideration of the subject would have terminated before this time.

#### C O N T R O V E R S I A L.

27. *A Vindication of the Doctrine and Liturgy of the Church of England. Occasioned by the Apology of Theophilus Lindsey, M. A. on Resigning the Vicarage of Catterick, Yorkshire.* By George Bingham, B. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington.

Mr. Bingham produces several passages of Scripture in support of Christ's divinity, and of that worship, which is paid to him in the liturgy of the church of England. He answers this assertion in Mr. Lindsey's Apology. "that the fathers of the first three centuries, and consequently all Christian people, were what we now call Arians or Socinians." He then endeavours to prove the personality and divinity of the Holy Ghost; and alleges several texts of scripture, in which he thinks the doctrine of the Trinity is clearly and fully revealed.

Mr. Bingham is a learned and respectable author; and seems to be well acquainted with the early writers of the Christian church.

28. *An Appeal to Reason: or Thoughts on Religion. Wherein, the Interference of the Civil Power, and the Matter of Subscription, are candidly considered.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Rivington.

This tract contains a series of reflections on the existence of God, the nature of man, the Jewish dispensation, the prophecies concerning the Messiah, the most material circumstances, corresponding with those prophecies, in the life of Christ, the credibility and excellence of Christianity, the expediency of rites and ceremonies, of articles and subscriptions in the Christian church, &c.

The author speaks of his performance with unquestionable propriety, when he tells us, that it contains ‘the honest sentiments of a plain disinterested layman, without the embellishments of learning.’ The observations and arguments are trite, but not injudicious: the style in which they are conveyed is in general unexceptionable.

29. *Religious Intolerance no Part of the General Plan either of the Mosaic, or Christian Dispensation, proved by Scriptural Inferences and Deductions, after a Method entirely new.* By Josiah Tucker, D.D. Dean of Gloucester. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

In this tract the learned author endeavours to shew, that no violence or compulsion of any kind is prescribed in the Scriptures, as a proper method to be used by the worshipers of the true God, either for the original propagation, or for the subsequent defence and preservation of true religion. He particularly considers the conduct of Elijah, who commanded fire to come down from Heaven to consume the worshipers of Baal, 2 Kings, i. 10. He observes, that there was something singular in the situation and circumstances of the prophet; that the Israelites were commissioned by divine authority to extirpate the Canaanites, on account of their idolatry and other enormities; that this however was only a local injunction, and never intended to be a general rule; that, with respect to the Israelites themselves, according to the terms of their constitution, idolatry was treason against the state, an act of rebellion against their king Jehovah, and a capital crime, see Deut. xiii; that the idol was Baal, the supposed god of the sun, or of fire; and that the prophet, in order to confute their idolatry in a more exemplary manner, made the very element of fire the instrument of their punishment.

By these and other considerations he shews, that the conduct of Elijah can in no respect countenance the doctrine of persecution in the Christian church.

In the latter part of this tract he observes, that neither our Lord nor his apostles have given any directions, or left any commands behind them concerning the use of penalties on the score of religion. He goes farther, and insists, that, in the parable of the wheat and the tares, Mat. xiii. our Saviour has expressly in-

Injioned us to abstain from prosecuting measures, under any religious pretence whatever.

This dissertation is only a part of a more comprehensive work for elucidating the Holy Scriptures, which the author, we are informed, is preparing for publication, with as much dispatch as is consistent with his other engagements.

## D I V I N I T Y.

30. *A Paraphrase on the General Epistle of St. James.* By Cornelius Mordin. 8vo. 1s. Lewis.

It has been generally supposed, that the Epistle of St. James contains many passages, utterly inconsistent with the tenets of the Methodists. Among other texts the following one has been urged against their doctrine concerning the insignificance of works: ‘ You see how that by works a man is justified, and not by faith only.’

In commenting on these words Mr. Mordin says: ‘ We are justified, or made like God, by the pure all-sufficient works of the great Jehovah, being *always ours*, through our connection with a Redeemer, and not by any imperfect act of our own minds, in believing or trusting to any thing within us.’

Here, and in other similar places, this ingenious methodist has been very happy in *explaining*, or as most people may think, *perverting* the meaning of St. James. But when he writes again, let him try his abilities in a comment on this unfavourable sentence: ‘ If thou wilt enter into life, keep the commandments.’ Matt. xix. 7.

31. *Five Letters to them that seek Peace with God.* By Thomas Bentley, of Sudbury, in Suffolk. 8vo. 1s. Lewis.

A crude, immethodical compilation of texts of Scripture, accompanied with a practical comment; in which we find the undoubted signs of piety, but no traces of learning or ingenuity.

32. *Genuine Patriotism: A Sermon preached before the Gentlemen who support the Lord's Day Morning Lecture, at Little St. Helens, Bishopsgate-street, Aug. 12, 1774.* By George Stephen, M.A. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

This writer takes his text from Ezra ix. 13, 14. *And after all that is come upon us for our evil deeds, &c.* In discoursing upon these words he pursues the following method: 1. He enumerates some of the more signal expressions of God’s goodness to Great Britain. 2. He mentions some instances, in which the people of this land seem to have neglected or abused that goodness. 3. He considers what reason there is to fear, that God will punish our folly and ingratitude with severe judgements. And 4. he enquires what course we should take, in order to have these judgements averted, and our mercies continued.

A pious, well-intended discourse, calculated for a plebeian audience.

## POETRY.

33. *Lusus Poetici.* 4to. 1s. 6d. T. Lewis.

This publication contains a Latin translation of Mrs. Gre-ville's Prayer for Indifference to Oberon the Fairy; a translation of the celebrated song, 'When Orpheus went down to the Regions below'; a Translation of Dr. Warton's Ode to Solitude, published in the second volume of Pearch's Collection of Poems; and nine other small pieces. In all of them there is a delicacy of sentiment, and elegant Latinity: except some few inaccuracies like the following.

'Rivus ibi———

Hinc pronis pendens foliis ad *littoris oram*  
Canescit glaucâ plurima fronde *salex*.'

*Salex* is a mistake for *salix*; and *littoris oram* can with no propriety be applied to the banks of a rivulet: at least, we do not recollect an instance of such an application, in any of the more elegant classics.

The punishment of Sisyphus in Tartarus is beautifully described in the following verses:

'———Saxi *Syphus* [Sisyphus]  
Molimine ægro grande protudens onus  
Laborat, arduo quod ubi victor Jugo  
Vix jam reponit, protinus relabitur,  
Pronoque raptim devolutum pondere  
Usque usque campi plana repetit æquora.'

In several of these lines, that is, in the second, fifth, and sixth, the words are, in some degree, an echo to the sense. *Usque*, *usque*, represent the rebounding of the stone, when it thunders down from the top of the hill.

The subsequent lines by Mr. Pope, in his translation of the *Odyssey*, will give the reader a full idea of that beautiful imagery, which the author of the *Lusus Poetici* has attempted to copy in the foregoing verses.

'I turn'd my eye, and as I turn'd survey'd  
A mournful vision! the Sisyphean shade.  
With many a weary step, and many a groan,  
Up a high hill he heaves a huge round stone.  
The huge round stone, resulting with a bound,  
Thunders impetuous down, and smokes along the ground.'

Odys. xi. 773.

The beauty of these lines is obvious; and, we are persuaded, will never be equalled in any language.

34. *A Scourge for False Patriots; or Mother Hubberd's Tale of the Ape and the Fox. Part II.* Dedicated with ut Permission to John Wilkes, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Snagg.

No narrative, censorious old woman in a chimney corner, ever indulged her spleen more copiously than mother Hubberd, in her

her Tale of the Ape and Fox. Never did grimalkin experience the weight of her distaff, impelled with greater fury than she here discovers against the poor patriots, whom she belabours in a most unmerciful manner.

35. *The Optimist; or Satire in good Humour.* 4to. 1s. Almon.

This poem treats of the fashionable vices of the times, which the author recommends ironically, with some degree of humour.

36. *The Stage of Aristophanes.* 4to. 1s. Setchell.

The subject of this poem is the performers at Mr. Foote's theatre in the Hay-market, whom the author endeavours to characterise. We cannot pretend to such acquaintance with the several persons as to determine positively concerning the justness either of the panegyric or satire which is here bestowed upon them ; but if the author's discernment and impartiality be not greater than the poetical merit of his production, the parties have no reason to be much affected by his decisions.

### D R A M A T I C.

- ✓ 37. *Comedies of Plautus, translated into familiar Blank Verse, by the Gentleman who translated the Captives.* Vol. V. and last. 8vo. 6s. Becket.

19.321  
26.375  
23.113  
35.81

Two volumes, containing seven comedies, were published by the late Bonnel Thornton, esq. in the year 1767 ; five translated by himself ; one, the Merchant, by George Colman, esq. and one, the Captives, by Richard Warner, esq. of Woodford-Row, Essex, who has continued and completed the work.

The fifth and last volume contains, Baechides, or the Courtezans ; Perfa, the Persian ; Afinaria, the Afs-dealer ; Cafina, the Lots ; and some Fragments, which have been preserved by grammarians.

The translator has executed this performance with a laudable fidelity \*.

- ✓ 38. *The South Briton : a Comedy of Five Acts : As it is performed at the Theatre in Smock-Alley, with great Applause.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams.

Mowbray, a young gentleman just returned from the grand tour, with a train of foreign servants, and a contempt for the manners of his countrymen, is the South Briton from whom the performance before us is denominated. To effect his conversion to a less extravagant mode of thinking, is the chief business of the piece ; and although the means employed for this purpose are far from being the most proper, yet as

\* See a copious account of Plautus in our Review for February, 1773.

he is endued with much good sense, which is borne down chiefly by the tide of passion, it is not improbable that slight circumstances might awaken reflection, and teach him to despise the fashionable ton into which he had given.

Ridicule, as Aristotle teaches us, is the proper business of comedy, and we cannot avoid looking on the *very* sentimental parts of many of our modern comedies as heterogeneous. The South Briton is not blameable in this respect, and if *interdum vocem tollit* (to use the expression of Horace) it is never to excess.

With respect to the characters, they are very well marked; but we wish that Miss Audley (a young lady of good sense and education, possessed of a thorough contempt for fashionable foibles, and who bears a considerable part in the business of the drama) had been contrasted with some modish female character, which would have shown her to more advantage, and have coincided perfectly with the author's plan of ridiculing modern extravagancies.

In sir Terence O'Shaughnesy, and Donald Macpherson, the national peculiarities of character are very well hit off.

In order to bring about a happy catastrophe, Egerton, who possesses an estate which in justice belonged to his nephew, and who, knowing both him and his sister to be in distress, neglects assisting them, on a sudden becomes generous enough to resign almost all his fortune into their hands, and that at the moment they were not in need of it. This transition from avarice to generosity is too sudden; but poets are sometimes allowed the privilege of substituting possibility for probability. We mention this circumstance with no intention of reflecting on the piece, which is far from being destitute of merit.

#### M E D I C A L.

39. *An Account of the Testicles, their common Coverings and Coats; and the Diseases to which they are liable. With the Method of treating them.* By Joseph Warner, F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. L. Davis.

After delivering a distinct and concise account of the structure of the parts, and describing the several diseases to which they are liable, Mr. Warner enters upon the method of cure. This he illustrates with some cases, and discovers, through the whole, much chirurgical knowledge and experience.

40. *An Abridgment of Baron Van Swieten's Commentaries upon the Aphorisms of the celebrated Dr. Herman Boerhaave, Vol. I. and II.* 8vo. 10s. 6d. Horsfield.

In this work Dr. Hoffack judiciously abridges his copious author. He has brought it down to the conclusion of the peripneumonia notha, and intends to comprise the whole in five volumes.

41. All the Prescriptions contained in the New Practice of Physic of Thomas Marryat, M. D: Translated into English. By J. S. Dodd. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Kearsfly.

If we take the author's word for it, this is 'the best family physician and surgeon, yet extant, in any language!' We wish that so modest a character were not extremely inapplicable. The benevolence which Mr. Dodd professes may be his motive to this publication, but it cannot be productive of any good effect.

42. A Description of the Four Situations of a Gouty Person; evincing the Danger of trusting the Gouty Matter to the Care of Nature. By P. de Vivignis, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

In this pamphlet, we meet with no other information than that the gout ought to be managed by a physician. As the author mentions no directions relative to its treatment, we may presume that he thinks every physician equally qualified for the task.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

43. The Ambulator; or the Stranger's Companion in a Tour round London; to which is prefixed, a Concise Description of London, Southwark, and Westminster. 12mo. 2s. 6d. boards. Bew.

Whoever is desirous of being furnished with an account of the metropolis, and the most remarkable places within the extent of twenty-five miles round it, may meet with an useful and entertaining companion in this Ambulator. Besides the descriptions being clear and copious, a short historical account of the places is frequently added.

44. The Southampton Guide; or, an Account of the Antient and present State of that Town; its Fortifications, Charitable Foundations, Churches, and Schools, Trade, Government, Fairs, Markets, Playhouse, Assembly-rooms, Gentlemen's Seats in its Environs, Remarkable Prospects, pleasant Rides, Baths, &c. Together with the Times of going out and coming in of Stage-Coaches, Machines, Carriers, Posts, &c. To which is added, A Description of the most remarkable Remains of Antiquity to be met with in this Neighbourhood; also, the Isle of Wight, Lyndhurst, Romsey, Redbridge, Millbrook, Tichfield, &c. With many other curious and useful Articles. 12mo. 1s. Beecroft.

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45. *Rules for the French Genders.* By Nicholas Salomon. 8vo.  
6d. Riley.

A method of facilitating the acquisition of this necessary part of grammar, cannot fail of being highly useful to all who learn the French language. Great observation and industry have been requisite to invent the Rules here laid down, and we therefore hope that Mr. Salomon will reap from the public favour, the fruit which his labour deserves.

46. *An Account of the Rise, Progress, and present State of the Society for the Discharge and Relief of Persons imprisoned for Small Debts.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Leacroft.

This laudable institution merits the encouragement of the humane and affluent. It appears from this account that many poor families have already experienced its beneficent effects.

47. *The Fugitive Miscellany.* Being a Collection of such Fugitive Pieces in Prose and Verse as are not in any other Collection. With many Pieces never before published. 8vo. 3s. Almon.

This production we are informed is intended as a continuation of a 'New Foundling Hospital for Wit,' and to be published annually; but before a year expires the author will probably find it prudent to continue his miscellany no further. If a confused jumble of incoherent rhapsodies in verse and prose, can have any claim to attention, this truly *Fugitive Medley* greatly deserves the public favour.

48. *Letters on Usury and Interest; shewing the Advantage of Loans for the Support of Trade and Commerce.* 12mo. 2s. Snagg.

These Letters have been formerly published in an Edinburgh Weekly Magazine, in which the subject was argued on both sides. The circumstance most observable in the controversy is, that the disputants refer the decision respecting modern practices to the usages of the ancient Jews.

49. *The Cattle-Keeper's Assistant, or Genuine Directions for Country Gentlemen, Sportsmen, Farmers, Graziers, Farriers, &c.* Being a Collection of Observations and Receipts for the Cure of the most common Distempers incident to Horses, Oxen, Cows, Calves, Sheep, Lambs, Hogs, and Dogs. By Josiah Ringsted, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dixwell.

The value of these receipts must be determined by those who have had experience in the distempers of animals. That the prescriptions are popular, we believe; but whether they be efficacious, we are uncertain.

50. *Arcandam's Astrology, or Book of Destiny.* Translated from the French of J. Fr. Neveau. 12mo. 1s. Bew.

An attempt to revive a science, which has long since been justly exploded.

